

HYDRAULIC

*ITS PROPERTIES,
AND USE*

BY

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F. P. SPALDING

PREFACE TO

THE following pages cover a study of the nature and purpose of the various methods which are in use, for testing cement.

The subject is not so simple as a casual observer, but about the results of experiments and the authorities, which at times

The views of the author are based on the observation of the behavior

and concrete, and a number
appended for the purpose of
of leading American engineers

ITHACA, N. Y., March, 1897.

PREFACE TO SECOND EDITION

IN this edition a general revision has been made with the purpose of bringing the book up to date with the most recent investigation of the composition and properties of cement, and of describing the latest standard methods of examination.

The articles relating to the composition and properties of cement have been practically rewritten, while the articles relating to the examination of cement have been thoroughly revised.

The specifications appended to the end of the book are given in order to show examples of existing practice.



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HYDRAULI

CHAPT

HYDRAULI

ART. 1. I

LIME is the name commonly obtained by the calcination of stones employed differ greatly in properties of the limes obtained the nature and proportions in them.

When the limestone is converted into bonate of lime, the clinker known as *quicklime*, possesses the property of *slaking*, upon being treated with water. The slaking of lime is a violent reaction when in contact with water, accompanied by a considerable increase in the mass of lime and by a rise in temperature. If the quantity of water be only sufficient to convert the lime, the quicklime is reduced to a powder; if the water be in excess it becomes a paste.

The slaked lime thus formed

property, when mixed to a paste, to stand in the air, of hardening to any surface with which it comes in contact. This property is called the *air-setting* property of common limes. Limes so exposed to the air and allowed to harden are called *air-set limes*.

When lime is nearly pure and has a great strength, it is known as *fat lime*.

If the lime have mixed with it considerable percentages of impurities, which act as an adulterant, it is known as *lean lime*. These impurities, of the lime, causing a partial loss of strength and also diminishing its power of hardening under water, are known as *meagre lime*.

When the impurities in the lime are of silica and alumina, they destroy its property of slaking and hardening under water and only harden to the presence of air.

When the proportions of the impurities are such that the material hardens in water, it is known as *hydraulic lime*.

ing products which greatly affected both by the composition and by the manipulation given of manufacture. Because of the character of the material, it is extremely difficult to establish any general laws governing its behavior. It is necessary to have a system of testing which shall give a fair estimate of the value.

Hydraulic limes are used quite extensively but they are not made to any extent in this country. The American cement industry is, however, making rapid strides. Natural cements are manufactured in this country and the production of Portland cement is increasing to large proportions, although a considerable amount of foreign cement is still imported.

ART. 2. CHEMICAL ANALYSIS

The most important ingredients in the manufacture of stones, in addition to the carbonates of lime and alumina, silica, oxide of iron, etc., commonly contain also small quantities of sulphuric acid, phosphoric acid, oxide of iron, soda, bituminous or carbonaceous substances, and water. The lime stones commonly contain small particles of chert which are employed.

The volatile substances are determined by heating lime because they disappear. The percentage of carbonic acid and

driven off in the burning or is absorbed by the air will appear in the lime. If the carbonic acid be large, it indicates either that the burning has been incomplete or that the lime has been attacked by subsequent exposure. The carbonic acid is thus diminished, the portion of lime which has been rendered inactive by the carbonic acid being rendered

Silica is undoubtedly the most important element rendering lime hydraulic and is usually present in the form of silicious sand not affected by the burning and remaining in the product. It is only that portion of the silica which is present in a condition to be attacked by the lime and combine with the lime which renders the hydraulic properties to the lime.

Alumina is an important element in the composition although not, as seems to be the case, essential to its hydraulicity. Vicat found that lime without silica would not render

ditions under which it is present in most cases is in considerable hydraulic limes by burning carbonaceous lime, thus showing that the carbonaceous lime imparts hydraulic properties to the lime. It has also been shown by Mr. H. St. Clair that the presence of magnesium by itself is sometimes sufficient to set and sets under water. Other experiments indicate that magnesia might also be substituted in place of that element in forming a hydraulic lime with silica and lime. These results show that the action of magnesia on the hydraulic properties of the lime is independent of any action of the lime.

The silicates and aluminates impart to the lime the property of hardening under water, and the salts of lime, and in some cements the action of which would otherwise be required by magnesia. The action in the case of the silicates is definitely known, and there is

by different investigators with true in a less degree with the limes sometimes be rendered inert by too much of it.

Sulphuric Acid occurs in some limes, and sulphur also sometimes in the form of sulphide, usually of iron. During the setting of the mortar the sulphide may become transformed into sulphate, or either or both forms may remain. Experience seems to indicate that, in general, a deleterious substance, and that the durability of mortar made from such limes is doubtful. The sulphide, however, is sometimes found in hydraulic properties of the material, and its action is doubtful. In Europe it is common to use a large quantity of sulphur or sulphuric acid in the preparation of the lime.

Phosphoric Acid occurs in some limes, and is a material of this character, and its action other than that of common lime, which is thus rendered

ART. 3. HYDRAU

The hydraulic activity of a lime is its ability to harden under water, depending upon the relative proportions of its ingredients and of lime. Silica and alumina are to be the effective hydraulic ingredients. It is common to designate the ratio of the weight of silica and alumina to that of lime as its *hydraulic index*.

The hydraulic index gives, within certain limits, a measure of the hydraulic activity of different classes of limes. It is to be remembered, however, that there are other factors to be considered in the action of a lime than its hydraulic index. The other ingredients may by their action draw portions of the active elements of the lime, thus altering the effective ratio between them. The hydraulic activity of a lime depends largely upon the

limes according to the properties obtained by them.

When the hydraulic lime is 20/100 the lime is known to require from 12 to 20 days for hydraulic lime proper including about 20/100 to 40/100. For 10 or 10 days, the more rapid is as *eminently hydraulic*.

When the hydraulic lime is 60/100 the lime is of *lime*. These limes have hydraulic lime, but form the proper and the cements, and as a general thing not of the hydraulic ingredients cement. When burned and give hydraulic lime of rapid properly treated and burned makes good Portland cement.

termine at exactly what point lime but when it requires a month or water it is usually considered as be

In determining the rate of hard are so many external circumstances the result that there is always causes classification by that me uncertain. Variation in temper important effect upon the rate of h

ART. 5. COMMON

Common lime is such as does properties. It is divided into fat lime, according to the quantity of character it may contain. When left in air it slowly hardens. Setting consists in the gradual formation of lime through the absorption of carbonic air, accompanied by the crystallization of hydrated lime as it gradually dries. In lime the final hardening takes place inward from the surface, as it is in contact of the mortar with the air. When pure the resulting carbonate is insoluble, and consequently to be set. Nearly all limes, however, contain silica and alumina, and these in quantities too small to render the

a certain power to set, causing it to place with greater rapidity and force upon contact with air. It is less soluble and more durable.

Limes containing but a small amount of magnesia consist mainly of calcium oxide, which and becomes hydrated very rapidly upon contact with water. This hydration produces a rise in temperature and the products which vary in amount according to the lime, the volume being doubled.

The common method of setting is to mix the quicklime with water, using about one volume of the lime. This method is called *slaking*. The lime is usually spread in a layer of perhaps 6 or 8 inches thick, and water is poured over it and allowed to run off. It must be allowed for all of the water to run off. When the lime contains much magnesia, the setting operation frequently requires several days.

Too great a quantity of water

slaking by immersion is accomplished. By the first method, the lime is placed in baskets for a brief period to permit the necessary water, after which it is removed until the slaking takes place and the water is absorbed.

By the second method, sprinkling with proper immersion, the lime is properly sprinkled with the necessary water, covered with sand and allowed to slake.

The difficulty in using these methods is to get the right quantity of water to produce a complete slake. Lime so slaked may be used in form of powder.

Spontaneous Slaking is also known as *air-slaking*; it consists in exposing the lime to the air, and is effected by absorption of moisture from the air.

Lime slaked by immersion is called *water-slaked*; slaked by drowning and requiring no water is called *air-slaked*. Slaked lime, either by immersion or by exposure to the air, may be kept indefinitely if properly stored.

Lime is commonly sold as *air-slaked* or *lump* in lumps and not air-slaked. If lime has been exposed to the air, it is called *air-slaked*; both moisture and carbonic acid are absorbed, the active portion combined with the water being inert. A simple test of the quality of lime is to immerse a lump for a minute in water and observe whether it swells, and whether there is a rise of temperature.

Slaking some days in advance of use is recommended.

order to insure the complete reaction it is quite common to slake lime before it is to be used.

The swelling of lime has been avoided by slaking with steam instead of water. It has been found by Candlot that the addition to the water of a small quantity (6%) of chloride of calcium prevents the swelling.

Common lime is ordinarily used in making a mortar, mixed with sand. In making the mortar should be just sufficient sand to the sand, without leaving any free lime. Mortar of rich lime shows a tendency to masses composed entirely of lime, which are likely to remain soft, so that it is an element of weakness. If the mortar may be porous and the proportions ordinarily required are 3 parts sand, and 1 part lime to 1 part sand.

Mortar of common lime should

HYDRAULIC L

often greater than that of cohesion of mortar.

Meagre limes are similar in action, less energetic. They swell feebly on slight change in temperature. Unlike that of fat lime, but cracks less and limes proper, those containing silica to materially reduce the energy, employed in construction.

ART 6. HYDRAULIC

Hydraulic lime is obtained by retaining silica and alumina in sufficient quantity to retain the ability to harden under water. Silica and alumina are present in such quantities with a portion of the lime, forming silicates of lime, leaving the remainder in uncombined state.

the case of the limiting limes. ally those which can be burned complete the chemical combinat

It is necessary that sufficient cause the lime to slake properly that the quantity of uncombined sible, as the setting properties a aluminates, while the hydrated the initial hardening of the mor

According to Professor Le hydraulic lime should contain aluminates are hydrated during and become inert, while the sil heat of the slaking preventing t

The following is given as a best French hydraulic lime:

Silica.

Alumina.

Oxide of iron.

Lime

HYDRAULIC LIME

Hydraulic lime is used in the form of mortar, being mixed with sand to a paste. Air hydraulic lime acts like common lime, and slowly absorbs carbonic acid from the air, and cracks when without sand, but mortars made in water, or in damp situations, are altogether different. The hydraulic lime hardens more or less rapidly. In the early stage, a large amount of the lime is at first dissolved, but is arrested as the hardening progresses.

Hydraulic lime is commonly slaked, and shipped in form of powder. To prevent injury, in this form by covering the surface with the air.

ART. 7. MANUFACTURE OF

The manufacture of hydraulic lime is carried on in Europe consists,

When full it is lighted at the bottom, and new layers of material are added while the burned lime is drawn off. The furnace being kept in continuous operation, the rate of burning is controlled by damper openings and cover at the top.

In furnaces of the second class the gases of combustion are passed through the material, not in direct contact with the fuel.

The regulation of a furnace to secure the most efficient burning is a matter requiring special skill, demanding the close attention of an experienced operator. The lime must be completely burned. The character of the limestone determines the rate of burning necessary. A lime of high index may be burned at a much higher rate than one of high index. When the limestone is of poor character it will not burn evenly, but will be vitrified before that of high index is burned. The burning is accelerated by moist, and stone fresh from the quarry, and that which has been exposed until the surface has been evaporated.

The chemical phenomena of the burning process are approximately as follows: The water is first driven off. The carbonate of lime is decomposed. Then the clay is dehydrated, and the combination of the silica and lime takes place. The temperature rises as these changes depend upon the

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composition of the carbonate of lime is burned at a temperature of 700°C . to 900°C . the temperature required for burning depends upon the silica and alumina present. When the silica is low the temperature must be sufficiently high. The combinations of the lime with the silica and alumina in order to impart hydraulic properties must be such while if the hydraulic index be high the temperature is a little greater than that necessary to burn the lime. It may be sufficient, and a higher temperature would effect complete combinations of the silica and alumina, may so greatly reduce the amount of free lime as to destroy the proper properties.

The *slaking* of hydraulic lime is accomplished by sprinkling, as mentioned above, the lime after coming from the furnace, with 4 to 8 inches deep in the slaking-pit, and sprinkled so that all of the quicklime is covered from 7% to 10% of water is comm

of silicate which is hydrated because if the lime be imperfectly slaked, the free water may cause injury to the mortar. The mortar so affected will set more quickly than normal, but afterward is likely to swell.

Steam is sometimes used for slaking lime, and is said by Le Chatelier to be better than the lime while producing no effect on the strength.

It is claimed that the alumina in the lime, during the slaking of the lime, being oxidized by steam, and hence are undesirable.

After the lime has been reduced to a fine powder, it is forced through sieves of all pulverized particles, but the residue, of size, including the underburned and overburned parts which refuse to pass, from the first bolting is known as the "fines."

in silica and alumina, obtained from the limestone, disseminated through the limestone, and the combination of the cinders of combustion with the lime. This is what is properly meant by hydraulic lime.

Bonnami found in his investigations that a large part of the grappiers are from the limestone which are in contact with the fire, and due to the silica and alumina in the cinders. These cinders are usually quite fine.

The grappiers are ground and mixed with the lime or used separately as cement.

The addition of ground grappiers to the lime has the effect of raising the hydraulicity of the lime and increasing its activity, and of controlling to a certain extent the setting of the lime. In this case the mixture between the grappiers must be very intimate in order to form a homogeneous material. It is also very important that the lime in the grappiers be entirely

It is employed with cement in mortars, etc.

ANALYSES OF LIME AND GRAVEL

	Slaked Lime.	Me- abl
	Per Cent.	Pe
Silica.	23.05	2
Alumina and iron oxide.	2.75	
Lime.	65.75	6
Magnesia.	1.50	
Water, etc.	6.95	

ART. 9. PUZZOLANA

The term puzzolana is commonly applied to materials which, when made into mortars, or feebly hydraulic lime, impart strength to the properties and cause the mortar to set.

Puzzolana (or pozzuolana) is a volcanic material of volcanic origin, deriving its name from a town of Italy near the foot of Mount Vesuvius.

with clay in considerable proportion to the total volume. It may be made with water, which will harden on drying, or three times used for common mortar with lime.

Psammites is a sandstone consisting of quartz, schist, feldspar, and mica, agglutinated with cement. It is slaty in character and hardens to a paste with water.

Puzzolana may be made artificially, and natural ones may frequently be found. The process of making, which has the effect of dehydrating the alumina of which they are mainly composed, puts it in condition to combine readily with lime.

Berthier gives the following analyses of natural samples of puzzolanas:

	Trass.
Silica.	0.570
Alumina.	0.120
Lime.	0.020
Magnesia.	0.010
Iron oxide.	0.050
Potash.	0.070
Soda.	0.010
Water, etc.	0.440

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CLASSIFICATION AND

ART. 10. CLA

HYDRAULIC cements
the method of manuf
ings: Portland cement
mixed cements, and gra

The term *Portland C*
nate hydraulic cement
of vitrification a mixtur
proportions and reduc
by grinding. The cem
draulic index than th

tain a minimum of 1.7 parts of lime substances. The addition of 2% matter may be tolerated in the cement, with the view of augmenting qualities, without the necessity of

Natural Cements are those which are made from burning limestones less rich in lime than the hydraulic limes or Portland cements. They are like the hydraulic limes without the addition of raw material, and require a much longer time in burning than does Portland cement.

This class includes a number of cements widely in composition and value. They are commonly divided into quick-setting and slow-setting, frequently called *Roman Cement*, and hydraulic cements, known sometimes as natural cements. In the United States there is much confusion in the materials coming within this class, and confusion in their nomenclature. They are commonly designated by a name derived from the place which they are obtained, and this is not a very satisfactory method. Thus, the cements from the region of the Loire are called cements from the region of the Loire; the cements from the Ohio valley, Portland cements from the Ohio valley; the cements from the corresponding region of the West are called cements from the West, Akron, and Milwaukee are names of the location of manufactories of particular

The term *American Cement* is applied to include all natural cements of the United States. This, however, often leads to confusion on account of the fact that other than natural cements are made quite extensively in this country. The term *American Portland Cement* is a

The term *Rosendale Cement* is used in a general meaning and used as a synonym for American and American to include all cements, but, however, more properly restricted to the district in which it was first applied. There is no good reason for extending the term to a totally different material.

Slag Cement, or, as a more correct name, *Slag Portland Cement*, is the product obtained by the mixture of slaked lime with fine-grained slag material, commonly blast-furnace slag. In this the hydraulic ingredients are not present but are present in the cement only.

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ART. 11. MANUFACTURE

The manufacture of hydraulic cement practised consists of four operations: the selection of the raw material, the burning, the grinding, and the packing.

The methods of preparing the raw material are according to the nature of the material. For natural material it is only necessary to select the proper material and break it into fragments of suitable size for introduction into the furnace. The product of the burning requires the use of homogeneous material to be used to prevent the introduction of impurities into a single burning.

The methods of preparing the raw material for the manufacture of Portland cement depend on the character of the materials and the method of burning. Several classes of material are used.

manufacture of slag 'cement (so called) materials are not burned together.

These materials are first to be divided state and incorporated into a mass. This is accomplished either by the dry or wet method, the details of the method varying in each case.

In general where the dry method is used it is necessary to pass the material through a series of grinders to the grinders, although there are some cases in which this is not done. These dryers are about 5 feet in diameter and 40 feet in length, nearly horizontal, the material passing in small fragments being fed into the upper end and coming out at the lower end. The material is then in proper proportions and ground to a fine powder, when it is ready to go to the kiln is to be used or to be made into bricks. In the kiln is to be employed. In some cases the method is modified by grinding the materials and afterward putting them through a series of

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great care must be exercised in sectioning of the ingredients and their incorporation into the mixture. Careful proportions must be made and proportions must be proper composition to the cement. Grinding is usually necessary in order that the mixture may be very intimate.

Natural cement is commonly burned in vertical kilns in which the fuel and the cement are together or in alternate layers at the top and is drawn out at the bottom as the burning proceeds.

For Portland cement rotary kilns are commonly used in the United States. These kilns have come into use during the past few years because of decreased labor cost of handling the material and not so economical of fuel as some of the vertical kiln. These kilns are usually of cylindrical shape and set with axis at an angle of about 30° to horizontal. They vary from about 60 to 100 feet in length and are usually 5 or 6 feet in diameter.

of lime-kiln, and is used by charging a charge of the cement material in layers of fuel in layers. It is then fired, and is complete, allowed to cool, after which it is ready for use.

The continuous kilns in use are of two kinds, the *ring or Hoffman kiln* and the *shaft kiln*.

The Hoffman continuous kiln is a long cylinder arranged in a circle around a central shaft, the shaft being fired at a time and the material passing through the chambers of the kiln, the firing progressing from one end to the other continuously around the kiln.

The Aalborg kiln is a shaft kiln in which a chamber is placed at the top, in which the material is fed in the form of bricks and the products of combustion pass; below, is a furnace in which the burning is completed, the fuel is fed, and at the bottom is a chamber from which the clinker is withdrawn.

The Dietzsch kiln is similar to the Hoffman kiln, but is of a different shape.

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incomplete; a part of the lime remains as free lime uncombined with the clay. The clinker is of light weight. In the burning, as the limestone and clay materials and the decomposition of the lime is first effected, the limestone loses weight and out loss of volume, and thus sufficient to make up the density. As the subsequent combination of the lime and the clay occurs, a contraction in volume occurs and the density becomes greater.

In stationary kilns the clinker is removed from the chambers of the kiln and must be cooled. From rotary kilns the clinker drops directly to the bottom and must be cooled before packing. For this purpose two principal methods are used. In the vertical tower cooler the clinker is cooled by water with water is elevated to the top of the tower and to slide down through the tower. In the horizontal rotary cooler the hot clinker passes through a cylinder set with bricks nearly horizontal.

controlling the rate of setting and of the presence of small proportions

After grinding, the cement is exposed to the purpose of allowing any free lime to become air-slaked, after which it is put in bins or is put in barrels or sacks for instances keeping it for a time in upon for aeration, while in others altogether.

The manufacture of Portland cement requires care in the proportioning of the materials and its subsequent manipulation. Each mixture is studied in order to determine the proper proportions to give the mixture and the proper curing to secure the best results, and these operations are closely controlled by frequent laboratory tests. The grade of cement is to be made.

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"This term is applied to the fine product resulting from the calcination to incandescence of an intimate mixture of properly proportioned argillaceous and calcareous materials, and to which a fineness greater than 3% has been made satisfactory."

The Association of German Portland Cement Manufacturers in 1903 adopted the following definition:

"Portland cement is a hydraulic cement, made with a specific gravity of not less than 1.4 in dry condition, and containing not less than 65% by weight of lime to each one part of siliceous oxide, the material being prepared by comminuting the raw ingredients, calcining them at clinkering temperature and then grinding to a fineness."

These definitions imply that Portland cement is an artificial mixture of materials to secure a certain constitution. All Portland cements made in Germany are of this character, but in France

the formation of active material. If there is too much of clay beyond this point, it forms a surplus of lime remains in the cement which constitutes one of the chief dangers. As, although it may not prevent the setting of the cement when used, it may cause the cement to swell and become cracked and distorted.

As perfect homogeneity is not always attainable, it is always necessary that there be a certain excess in order that free lime be present in a certain amount of excess of clay necessary for the setting. Upon the thoroughness of the preparation, the manufacture and the evenness which may be obtained in the mixture of raw materials.

The hydraulic index of Portland cement is about 42/100 to 60/100. The value is affected by the relative proportions of lime and iron oxide contained by the cement. The relative weights of these oxides differ

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while Table II, collected from various analyses of a few of the leading Portland cements.

TABLE I.
COMPOSITION OF PORTLAND CEMENTS

	Silica.	Alumina.	Oxide of Iron.	Lime.
French cements	22.20	6.72	2.28	67.31
	23.50	7.75	2.95	64.07
	21.70	7.48	2.57	65.54
	23.40	7.36	2.84	63.70
	24.50	7.09	2.81	62.40
	25.40	6.65	2.75	61.60
	21.80	6.56	2.64	57.42
	24.25	5.20	2.30	63.61
	22.30	8.04	3.71	58.68
	23.25	7.44	2.10	62.55
	23.00	8.33	3.87	60.90
	24.60	7.98	2.51	59.10
	23.15	7.83	3.37	61.40
	23.30	7.65	3.10	62.20
	23.15	7.88	3.37	61.30
	23.70	7.80	3.40	59.36
	22.25	8.22	3.38	60.48
	21.05	7.00	2.01	59.08

A large number of analyses of cements are given by Professor T. for the most part about the same as those already given.

TABLE II.
COMPOSITION OF AMERICAN PORTLAND CEMENTS.

	Silica.	Alumina.	Oxide of Iron.	Lime.
Sandusky.....	22.33	5.53	3.28	64.40
".....	22.06	4.80	1.66	65.44
Atlas.....	21.30	7.65	2.85	60.95
".....	21.96	8.29	2.67	60.53
Buckeye.....	21.30	6.95	2.00	62.30
".....	20.75	13.50		62.25
Giant.....	23.36	8.07	4.83	58.93
".....	19.92	9.83	2.63	60.33
Lehigh.....	22.96	6.78	2.54	63.95
".....	22.13	9.56		62.63
Empire.....	22.04	6.45	3.41	60.92
".....	20.80	7.39	2.61	64.00
Alpha.....	20.38			63.30
".....	22.62	8.56	2.66	62.62

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principal ingredients. He concludes that the tricalcic silicate, SiO_5Ca_3 , is the only silicate of hydraulic character and that it is the essential component of Portland cement. In Portland cement he finds a component, occurring in cubical crystals, formed by combination of silica and lime, which is a compound formed by the alumina and lime.

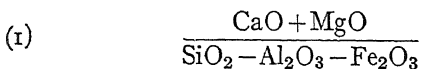
"The dicalcic silicate, SiO_4Ca_2 , is a compound of the property of spontaneously pulverizing on cooling. This silicate does not possess hydraulic properties and will not harden under water. It is attacked by carbonic acid, forming a soluble compound, and thus contributes something to the softening of mortar employed in air. The presence of magnesia to form the double silicate SiO_4MgCa , prevents the pulverizing property and is of no value for cement.

"At a very high heat the tricalcic silicate is decomposed into the dicalcic silicate and lime, which is an inert substance."

function is to assist the combination of lime.

"This silico-aluminate, which is a constituent of land cement on account of slow cooling, is a condition when the cooling is sufficient to form the case of blast-furnace slag present in water. It combines with hydrate of lime and gives rise to the hydrated silicates and aluminates identical with those formed during the setting of land cement. It is these properties which are based the manufacture of slag cement.

Prof. Le Chatelier gives two limits for the quantity of lime in Portland cement which has been found. These are, that the proportion of lime always be greater than that represented by the following equation:



and that it should never exceed that

aluminate being formed. If less lime the bicalcic silicate would be formed.

Formula (2) represents the point of lime would be sufficient to form and aluminate to the exclusion of If more lime than this be present, form of free lime.

It is also stated by Prof. Le Chatelier that a Portland cement of good quality forms 3.5 to 4, and formula (2) gives 2.5 to 3.

Dr. Erdmenger considers* that the results are borne out by experience, as they indicate that magnesia may be considered as a factor. It is pointed out that the formation of the silicate depends upon the temperature of burning. According to Prof. Le Chatelier, the trisilicate is decomposed and become inert at a high temperature.

Dr. Erdmenger also states that the rapid cooling may in some instances be necessary, as by plunging into cold water. If so treated the material does not become inert.

The examination of a considerable number of good Portland cement shows that the results of these formulas are commonly met. The maximum in formula (2) is 2.8, which is closely (from about 2.5 to 2.8) the value in formula (1) is, however, not usually

* Journal Society of Chemical Engineers

cements, which give results varying from 4 to 4.5.

Newberry's Investigations.—Mr. Newberry has made a careful investigation of the constitution of Portland cement by forming, in the laboratory, compounds of silica and alumina with lime and studying the effect of varying proportions.

Silicates of lime were formed by grinding silica and quartz ground to impalpability with lime under an intense white heat. The product was ground as in Le Chatelier's experiments, but on cooling, but when suddenly cooled in water this was prevented and the product, when being ground gave a white powder which, when mixed with water, set slowly and became hard in a day, and was quite sound. The product when ground gave a white clinker, sintered at a high temperature. The powder obtained by grinding the clinker set slowly in water, becoming fairly

with water and set in a few seconds after six weeks.

The aluminate, $\text{Al}_2\text{O}_3, 2\frac{1}{2}\text{CaO}$, heated strongly with water and set distorted and cracked after three weeks cracked at six weeks.

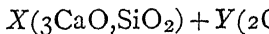
The tricalcic aluminate, Al_2O_3 , set in water and set quickly, but became in a short time, and disintegrated in water.

The conclusions reached by the following:

(1) Lime may be combined with one of three molecules to one and still retain a relatively constant volume and good strength though hardening very slowly. In the case of lime to one of silica the product is unsound in water.

(2) Lime may be combined with one portion of two molecules to one, and sets quickly but shows good hardening. In the case of $2\frac{1}{2}$ molecules of lime to one of silica is unsound.

"Assuming that the tricalcic silicate and aluminate are the most basic compounds to exist in good cement we arrive at the following:



in which X and Y are variable

upon relative proportions of silica and lime employed.

" $3\text{CaO}, \text{SiO}_2$ corresponds to 2.8 parts of lime to 1 of silica, while $2\text{CaO}, \text{Al}_2\text{O}_3$ corresponds to one of lime to one of alumina.

$$\therefore \% \text{ lime} = \% \text{ silica} \times 2.8 + \% \text{ alumina}$$

This formula represents the maximum lime allowable.

Le Chatelier's maximum formula is $3\text{CaO}, \text{SiO}_2$ form, leaving out of account Fe_2O_3

$$\% \text{ lime} = \% \text{ silica} \times 2.8 + \% \text{ alumina}$$

being based upon the tricalcic insoluble silicate aluminate.

Newberry differs from Le Chatelier in that he considers the percentages of Fe_2O_3 and MgO in the cement considered in determining the proportions of lime and silica.

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what affected by the additional fuel with which it is burned. lower the per cent of lime in the

According to M. Bonnami a formed, as with hydraulic lime, duced less basic than the rest of character of puzzolana. This through the cement in grinding raise the hydraulic index. It is act like a puzzolana in combining hardening of the cement.

Richardson's Investigations.—T. lier and the Newberrys have been tending knowledge of the composition of land cement. Mr. Clifford Richardson further investigation into the which is of much importance understanding of the subject.

Mr. Richardson made micro-

trial clinker. They are in fact oxides of aluminum and silicates of indefinite composition.

Törnebohm had made a microscopical examination of a land-cement clinker and found four constituents, named and described as follows:

"*Alit* is the preponderating element. It consists of colorless crystals of rather strong cleavage and of weak double refraction.

"*Belit* is recognized by its dirty gray color, its muddy color and by its brilliant cleavage. It is biaxial and of high index of refraction. It consists of small round grains of no recognizable character.

"*Celit* is recognized by its deep color. It fills the interstices between the other constituents, being the magma or liquid of low viscosity from which the alit is separated. It is highly refractive, that is to say, gives a strong double refraction when examined between crossed nicol prisms.

"*Felit* is colorless. Its index of refraction is low.

periments of Robert-Austen have shown that mobility in solids exists, since when the surfaces of gold and lead are brought into contact and left under pressure for some time at high temperatures, gold is diffused into the lead and lead into the gold for an appreciable distance. The rates of diffusion of the components which form a metal are very slow at ordinary temperatures. For example, when subjected to a temperature of 1650° C. the particles of lime may diffuse below the melting point of the clinker to form a Portland cement. The stability of a clinker is stable depends not only upon the fact that the diffusion is slow, but upon the fact that the diffusion is even in material which is only slightly soluble. Therefore, may be defined as diffusion.

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perature is a function of the temperature. The longer the lower the temperature.

The work of these investigators has increased our knowledge of the constitution of various cement materials and made it possible to determine the proper composition for Portland cement within certain limits.

Further investigation is, however, necessary to obtain definite knowledge of the actions of the various cement and of the rôle of the ingredients. There are three principal ones. The part played by silica is in doubt, while iron oxide is supposed to be similar to alumina in forming cement. "Iron oxide combines with lime and acts like alumina in promoting the cementation of lime. For practical purposes, however, the iron oxide in a clay need not be considered in the proportion of lime required.

This is based upon the supposition that iron is insignificant in amount.

would be needed for Portland cements vary greatly in composition and of such composition as to make increasing the content of lime, amounts of alumina or of magnesia permissible in materials for Portland

The quick-setting natural cements as they are called in Europe, are burned at a low temperature, argillaceous and of high index. These cements are characterized by a very rapid set and slowness in burning frequently. The feeble burning gives rise to the formation of the silicates of lime as in the heavily burned Portland cements. A considerable percentage of aluminates of lime is the cause of the quick set. Silica is also commonly present in such cements as inert matter. Material of this kind is used when the temperature of burning is below the point where the chemical reaction

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mixtures used in making Portland cement. The proportion of lime cannot be so great as in the case of the

TABLE III.
COMPOSITION OF EUROPEAN PORTLAND CEMENTS

	Silicious Sand.	Silica.	Alumina.	Iron Oxide.	Lime.
1	22.60	8.90	5.30	52.69
2	6.00	24.80	7.00	4.80	44.12
3	21.70	8.29	3.71	52.68
4	23.60	7.99	4.31	57.40
5	21.80	10.03	3.77	55.00
6	2.00	26.80	10.39	4.61	46.10
7	10.70	30.80	7.82	5.13	33.04
8	2.40	25.45	9.25	3.85	47.95
9	29.55	8.35	4.10	47.50
10	21.00	8.40	5.10	52.05
11	23.40	12.90	3.30	47.70
12	0.85	29.05	7.95	3.75	46.05
13	25.85	9.10	4.10	51.60
14	4.35	27.35	7.73	3.85	50.25
15	25.85	10.00	4.85	54.20
16	29.10	12.50	4.65	48.60

of this character, therefore, require to produce good results. As the amount of free lime becomes greater the homogeneity becomes less, and irregularities only have to be overcome by the quantity of inert matter, which must be added from the cement to gain strength. It has been observed that the material spoken of gains strength more slowly than with Portland cement of low free lime content. It is observed that the material spoken of delays the gain in strength in the early stages of curing, but in the long run, may not be altogether inferior to the final strength of the cement, and may have a different character and perhaps ultimately a different amount of hydrated lime in the mortar.

These cements occupy an intermediate position between the artificial Portland cements and the natural cements, and may approach either. In fact, the same raw material may be used for either—if burned lightly, giving the

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properties is well known, their action on Fremy being probably much slower than on the lime-salts.

The action of cements of this class is similar to that of Roman cements: they set slowly, but may be either quick- or slow-setting. The composition of the magnesian cements differs from that of the Roman cements to one in which the magnesia is as large as that of lime. As the ratio of magnesia to lime increases, the action becomes slower. Considering magnesia as lime, frequently the action becomes less than would be admitted for a cement.

Magnesian cements are but little used in the United States; they form the principal natural cements in use, and many of them are known by experience to be very useful and durable. Table IV gives analyses of American magnesian cements from various districts, showing somewhat the composition of these materials.

TABLE IV

COMPOSITION OF AMERICAN

District.	SiO ₂ .	Al ₂ O ₃ .	Fe ₂ O ₃ .
Utica.	27.60	10.60	0.80
"	34.66	5.10	1.00
Louisville.	26.40	6.28	1.00
"	22.54	8.28	2.14
"	23.29	5.96	2.16
Potomac.	28.02	10.20	8.80
"	30.22	8.38	5.38
Hudson.	27.98	7.28	1.70
"	28.91	10.96	4.68
"	31.28	11.30	
"	27.30	7.14	1.80
"	30.78	8.68	
Akron.	22.62	7.44	1.40
"	26.69	7.21	1.30
"	20.75	10.02	
Milwaukee.	23.16	6.33	1.71
"	25.00	4.00	2.80

The rock from which these ce
greatly in character in the sam
different strata of the same qu

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ally materially changed by age. If cements are kept exposed to the air for a long time, they gradually become inactive, and perhaps eventually lose the power of setting, sometimes becoming puzzolana, and can be made active cement by reburning.

ART. 14. SLAG CEMENT

Slag-cement is formed by the combination of lime with ground blast-furnace slag. It is approximately the composition of a hydraulic cement, with a proper proportion of lime to render it hydraulic. These cements are sometimes called "blast-furnace" the slag used being of the same nature as is commonly employed in making lime.

The method employed in forming slag-cement is the slag suddenly by plunging it into water, as it emerges from the furnace. This causes it to become granular, and causes it to retain its shape.

this ratio. He also finds that the best results are obtained from slags giving a ratio

$$\frac{\text{Al}_2\text{O}_3}{\text{SiO}_2} = 45/100 \text{ to } 50/100$$

M. Prost * states that a considerable amount of sulphur may be unobjectionable in slag, but in certain cases a case where good results have been obtained with a sulphurous slag, the only effect being due to sulphide of iron. He also states that the use of slag is most advantageous for this purpose when the slag is rich in lime and alumina.

Slags in actual use for the manufacture of hydraulic cement vary considerably in composition.

The lime ratio ranges from about 1.30 to 1.80, the silica ratio from 0.40 to 0.90. In most instances the lime ratio is together, that is, the high-lime ratio is associated with material as the high-alumina ratio.

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stitute quicklime for slaked lime for slaking, but unsuccessfully mixed to some extent with the lime and the fine while particles of quicklime become cause swelling of the mortar after

In some of the European practice the ground and bolted through fine mesh mixed with the lime, but more commonly slake and bolt the lime and the slag before grinding, or to do this in two stages and make the mortar with and second grinders.

The lime may advantageously be used after slaking before being used, but complete reduction of the quicklime is necessary to prevent it from deteriorate when kept long after slaking. It is commonly employed for this purpose to be an advantage in using mortar made from the mortar being less likely to crack. M. Prost found that there was no

The composition of slag cement is different from that of Portland in having a less amount of silica and alumina, and more of iron oxide and the silica.

Table V gives the composition of the leading European slag cements, and Tetmajer.

TABLE V
COMPOSITION OF SLAG CEMENTS

	Silica.	Alumina.	Iron Oxide.	Lime.
1	24.80	19.13	2.67	36.60
2	24.60	13.46	0.84	50.22
3	24.90	13.46	2.83	50.40
4	24.30	13.85	1.15	49.50
5	27.45	14.65	1.75	46.20
6	25.20	15.23	0.77	50.00
7	20.40	18.59	0.41	50.07
8	18.30	18.07	0.34	53.16
9	22.35	12.83	0.64	55.61
10	27.35	9.13	1.50	50.28
11	20.35	14.05	0.33	50.26
12	18.69	9.20	2.14	46.36
13	19.87	14.84	0.80	48.54

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Mr. Redgrave also says that it may be kept for a long time without injury, and if kept in a dry place that it undergoes no change whatever. He further states that exposed to air it gradually loses its hydraulic properties, particularly by carbonization.

ART. 15. MIXED CEMENTS

The term *Mixed Cement* is so defined as to include a considerable number of cements which are formed by a mixture of various kinds of cements. In works where other cement is made, a mixed cement may be made either for the purpose of saving space or product or of imparting to it certain qualities. They consist of admixtures of different kinds of the overburned or underburned cements, or of foreign material added to the cement.

Slag cements and certain natural cements, like some of the Rosendales, are not included in this

being mixed with natural cement. Portland cement being added to increase strength and reduce the rapidity of setting.

Cement of this kind is usually made by the addition of Portland or natural cement to its real character. Some of the best and regularly made give good results.

ART. 16. GRAPPIERS

Grappiers cements are made by the addition of the grappiers left from the slaking of lime. Very great care is necessary to remove the free lime from the grappiers by the operation of slaking and boiling several times. The grappiers include the material from the overburned material from the fuel, as well as a certain amount of the lime left from the slaking.

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being present to slake the particles of cement which it is air-slaked before packing.

ART. 17. SAND CEMENT

Sand cement is the name given to a mixture of Portland cement and sand by grinding together Portland cement and sand to an extremely fine powder and a very small amount of water. It is claimed that a very considerable amount of sand may thus be mixed with the cement without reducing its strength, and that the mixture may still be mixed with the usual amount of sand and give good results in use.

It is said that the additional grinding in pulverizing the sand reduces the amount of water required, thus increasing its power. Experiments also seem to indicate that when mixed separately, a certain amount may be used without serious injury to mortar made of

CHAPTER

THE SETTING AND HARDENING

ART. 18. THE SETTING

WHEN cement powder is mixed with water in a proper condition and allowed to stand, it gradually forms a solid mass, taking the water up and the mass soon becomes firm and hard. This process is called the *setting* of the cement.

Cements of different characters differ in their rate and manner of setting. Some set in a few minutes in the operation, while others require several hours. Some begin setting

THE SETTING AND HARDENING

rupture before any perceptible change takes place.

It is sometimes stated that the process involved in setting is an instantaneous one, the time we call the beginning of setting. Hardening then begins and is a gradual process. The maximum strength is reached after a considerable period of time. With some cements a quite noticeable shrinkage shows itself at about this time. The loss of water from the surface of the mass causes the stiffening of the mass.

ART. 19. THE HARDENING

After the completion of the setting process the mortar continues to increase in strength for a considerable period of time. The development of strength is especially rapid in the case of cement.

strength rapidly and attain it in a few days, while others harden slowly and continue to gain in strength for weeks. The property of early hardening gives but no guarantee of the ultimate action of the cement, and the mortar may be the same kind as that in which it is attained.

Portland cement usually gains its maximum strength in a few days, and also, as a rule, attains a greater final strength when it is allowed to harden for a longer time. Of two cements of the same kind it is safe to infer that that which gains strength more rapidly will prove the stronger and more durable. In fact, where an abnormal rate of gain in a few days the presumption is that the cement giving such results is of a more moderate rate of gain.

The rate at which cement gains strength depends, of course, upon

THE SETTING AND HARDENING

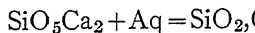
ART. 20. CHEMICAL REACTIONS

Very little is definitely known of the chemical reactions which take place in the setting and hardening of cement mortars. Several theories have been proposed to account for the phenomena observed by observers, based mainly upon the action of various compounds of lime, silica, and iron, synthetically. Chemical analysis has been made of the various elementary substances which compose a cement, but not their state of combination. The action of a cement may be greatly affected by the condition in which the ingredients are manipulated, by changing the manipulation in making the mortar, and by changing their relative quantities.

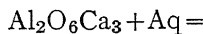
Fremy considered Portland cement as a very complex in composition, and ascribed its setting and hardening to the action of lime upon certain puzzolanous substances, and to the formation of double silicates of lime and alu-

while soluble in an anhydrous state when hydrated. When they are used in mixing mortar the anhydrous silicates then, becoming hydrated, take up water from the saturated solution in a mortar which are thus capable of existing in a dry state and then becoming hydrated in two ways—by decomposition.

The tricalcic silicate, which is one of Portland cement, is decomposed into a hydrated monocalcic silicate.



The monocalcic silicate forms needle-like crystals and the crystals are not visible to the eye. The tricalcic silicate is formed by simple combination with



THE SETTING AND HARDENING

The first setting of Portland cement is due to the hydrating of the aluminates, while the subsequent hardening is due to the progress of the hydration of the silicates. The rapidity of set is therefore determined by the relative proportions of aluminates. When the burning is done at a low temperature, the aluminates, which are first to set, while as the degree of burning increases, the aluminates give place to the silicates, and the setting to become slower and the final strength greater. The aluminates contribute but little to the final strength, as they are not permanent compounds, but combine with water and various salts with which they come in contact in the work.

Cements of low hydraulic value set quickly and gain their full strength in a short time. They are more nearly pure than the others, according to the theory should

they lose strength after hardening, probably due to the decomposition of the parts of too low hydraulic index. This loss of strength is usually temporary if the mortar is of normal composition; but if it is of too low index, the loss of strength may continue, to the final destruction of the mortar.

The experiments of M. Candès show that the presence of carbonic acid is essential to the setting of hydraulic cement mortar. Hydrated cement mortar were placed in distilled water, and after it became gradually decomposed, it lost its coherence; but the presence of carbonic acid, common in all natural waters, prevented this, and caused proper hardening to take place.

Mr. Clifford Richardson offers a rational explanation of the phenomena of setting of hydraulic cement, assuming the cement to be a solution, as indicated by Richa

THE SETTING AND HARDENING

composed Portland cement together with the silicates and aluminates. The silicates and aluminates are acted upon much more rapidly than the lime, and it is to the crystallization of the silicates that the first or initial setting is due. Subsequent hardening is due to the crystallization of the lime from the silicates. If the lime crystallizes rapidly than it is possible for it to take up the water, expansion ensues and the volume is not constant.

"The set of Portland cement is due to the decomposition of the alit along the surface of a thin section of a neat Portland-cement brick, that it contains large quantities of alit, and a certain amount of unattacked alit. The ends of a neat Portland-cement brick are held together by means of a rubber band and after a certain time in water the pieces of the brick are found to have become cemented together.

the greater its strength is known to be when burned."

As already pointed out, cement (celit) gain strength more rapidly than Portland cement (much celit), but it has frequently been found that cements slow to gain strength are often stronger than those which gain strength rapidly. This would seem to indicate that a low lime (celit) may play a part in the ultimate hardening of cement, a fact commonly supposed.

ART. 21. INFLUENCE OF SULPHATE OF LIME

The action of sulphate of lime on the setting of Portland cement is well known. In many instances it has been common to use sulphate of lime of regulating the rate of set, by adding it to the cement.

Candlet* has made a series of experiments on the

THE SETTING AND HARDEN

exposure soon becomes quick-setting. After exposure again becomes slow. If mortar mixed with the sulphate of lime has remained soft by exposure, it may again be made quick-setting by the addition of a small quantity of lime. Freshly mixed mortar of lime added, and setting slowly, will set rapidly if the mortar be mixed with the carbonate of soda.

“Cement having sulphate of lime set rapidly when mixed with sea-water, and that which has been exposed to its former activity sets more rapidly than when mixed stiff.

“The addition of a small quantity of soda to Portland cement augments the strength if the mortar is kept in sea-water and the amount exceeds 1 or 2 per cent, the mortar disintegrates. When the cement was kept in sacks during several years, its strength during the early period

and fails to prevent the immersion of the cement in sea water.

Aluminous cements burned in air contain considerable alumina, and can bear an addition of 5 to 10 per cent of alumina without loss of strength. The strength of these cements is always be limited to what is due to the aluminates.

ART. 22. INFLUENCE OF

Candlot has also made experiments upon the setting and hardening of cement in a solution of chloride of calcium, either saturated or not, in which the cement is mixed with water. He found that if the cement is immersed in water containing a few grammes of calcium sets more slowly than in pure water; while if the solution contains 100 to 400 grammes per litre

THE SETTING AND HARDENING

same solution it will not set or harden. If treated in the same way hardens and attains a hardness comparable to that of the original cement.

"Feeble solutions of chloride of lime have a appreciable effect upon cements of the type like certain grappiers cements which consist entirely of silicate of lime.

"From this the conclusions are as follows:

"1. That in Portland cement the chloride of lime in feeble proportions; that it acts as a retarding agent upon the set, but very little upon the hardening is caused by the silicate of lime.

"2. That in the Vassy cement the chloride of lime is the essential element, and determines the rate of setting and the hardening; the rôle of the silicate is important, especially during the early stages of setting.

"3. That in the phenomenon of setting and hardening the quantities of the elements present are of great importance. The solution of chloride in presence of the aluminate of lime perhaps

with a solution of 100 to 400 grains very quickly. This set is according to temperature. This only occurs with an old cement the setting temperature is produced, and the cement integrates.

"Mortar of cement gauged with a solution of CaCl is disintegrated immediately after setting, but 15 or 20 days perhaps be submerged without loss.

"The action of a concentrated solution of CaCl on Portland cement is due to the fact that it is attacked very energetically. As CaCl is very slightly soluble in a concentrated solution, it is dissolved in large quantities in a concentrated solution.

"When a fresh cement is agitated with a solution of CaCl it dissolves not only the oxide of lime. The lighter silicates more it will dissolve. When agitated with the concentrated solution

THE SETTING AND HARDE

characters, however, vary considerably. Some are so weak that they "take sand" without loss of strength, while weaker ones may not be able to support their own weight of standard sand, while others are so strong with considerably more than the standard weight, with loss of strength at the end of a certain period. All have a certain limit within which they may be made stronger by an admixture of good sand, but they will be if mixed neat.

Cement mixed with sand always sets faster than neat cement, and requires less time to attain its maximum strength. As the proportion of sand to cement is increased, both the rate of setting and the final strength are diminished. The rate of setting, however, the strength of mortar increases with the period of time as the proportion of sand is increased, and as the time of observation increases, the strength due to larger proportions of sand increases. Thus a good Portland cement mixed with 1 part sand to 1 of cement at the

in mortar than that containing earth, or that composed of sand also usually gives greater strength if the sand is very fine. It is often difficult to judge the quality of sand without experiment. In some cases a small amount of clay or silt is sufficient to injure the strength of the mortar. The mixture in the sand of grains of different sizes is a benefit through reducing the voids.

A mortar composed of sand and cement possesses greater ability to adhere to a surface if coarse sand is used than if the sand is fine.

ART. 24. WATER USED

The quantity of water used in the preparation of concrete is one of the most important considerations. The quantity, provided there be sufficient to hydrate the mass of cement, the quicker the setting of some Portland cements, changes with the quantity of water used.

THE SETTING AND HARDENING

to reduce the mass to a plastic state, it will not be so thoroughly compact as when made by the same strength as when made by the same strength applied to it. But if just sufficient water is applied to it. But if just sufficient water is applied to thoroughly dampen the mass, the strength will be greater than when made by the same strength. This difference, like the former, will increase to a certain extent with time, but the difference will be greater with the less quantity of water.

According to Prof. Le Chatelier, the strength of a crystalline mass varies with the mode of aggregation of the crystals. The strength of a single crystal is less than that of a mass of crystals in contact with one another. The strength of a mass of crystals in contact with one another gives greatest strength, and the strength of a mass of crystals in contact with one another is more as the solution is more saturated.

The nature of the water used in the solution affects the rate of setting. Water of high purity sets more rapidly than water of low purity.

Mortar kept immersed in water sets more rapidly than that kept in the air. Its strength is commonly much more than with mortar containing a large amount of sand. The strength gained although gained much more rapidly than the final amount than that in fresh air. There is a very great difference between the two particular.

Cements with a low hydraulicity show a difference between sea and land. Those containing small quantities of water set with early strength in sea than in the air, but sooner disintegrated by the sea water.

ART. 25. EFFECT OF SEA WATER.

Cement mortar kept under water sets more rapidly in the early stages than in the air, but usually that kept

THE SETTING AND HARDE

The nature of the water in which
to harden is of more importance
of the water used in gauging.
be kept in air, the nature of the
becomes more important, although
tions in ordinary natural water
produce any appreciable difference
mortar. Mortars gauged with steam
air.

ART. 26. EFFECT OF TEMPERATURE

The temperature of the water has
important bearing upon the time
the higher the temperature, with
more rapid the set. Many mortars
several hours to set when mixed
perature of 40° Fahr. will set in
temperature of the water be in
Below zero, the setting is delayed.

evaporation of the water from the surface may cause drying cracks in the mortar.

Quick-setting cements usually set at a low temperature during setting, due to the rapid evaporation which takes place. It has been found that the time occupied by the setting would be increased by increasing the temperature during the period of advanced setting, noting the stiffening of the mortar. In the case of slow-setting cements, however, a change of temperature, if any takes place, is not appreciable; and the rise in temperature, if it takes place, may not always be the result of the setting.

If the air at the time of mixing is cold, it may be cold to freeze the mortar before it has set while frozen; but most cements will set out, and but few of them will be injured by this, in so far as their ultimate strength is concerned. Experiments * have, however, shown that a mortar may set while frozen if it remains in the frozen state a sufficient length of time.

THE SETTING AND HARDE

The temperature of the air mortar is immersed during the a very appreciable effect upon of many cements. This effect of different material; with some the ated by keeping them hot as compared by the result in cold air or water; others are affected, while still others seem to harden by the application of heat to be found among cements of different seemingly independent of their hydraulic index usually show that of hardening under the action of

ART. 27. EFFECT OF AG

The effect upon a cement of before using depends upon the and the method of keeping. V closed so as to prevent the acco

usually becomes slower-setting without injury as to its ability to strength.

Light-burned cements, particularly, are affected in much greater degree. These cements not only become slower to set, but to the air, but commonly also to the power of hardening and become in some cases becoming puzzolanic materials. The strength may be restored by the addition of water.

The changes which occur in cements are attributed to the action of carbon dioxide on the free lime which they may contain, and to the less stable compounds, as the silicates, which contribute to the rapid setting. These are plentifully in the light-burned materials.

THE SETTING AND HARDENING OF CEMENT

in a useless condition much of the active portion of the cement.

The rate of setting is affected by the fineness to which the cement is ground. In the case of finely ground cement the amount of water required is greater than in one coarsely ground. The reactions which take place in the setting of cement are fine subdivision of the particles. When cement is gauged with sea-water the rate of setting is increased by the fineness.

The hardening of cement is also affected by fineness; that fine cement attains its ultimate strength more rapidly, but attains less strength than more coarsely ground. The rate of hardening of ground cements is more gradual than that of the ultimate strength greater.

Cement, when used, is combined with sand and the attainment of strength is more rapid than mortar of neat cement is. The finer the cement the more rapid the attainment of strength.

with the fineness, at least in the early period of setting.

The difference between coarse and fine cement is greater in the early period of setting. The fine cement hardens much more rapidly than coarse cement, especially in rich mixtures. The ultimate strength of the two is nearly the same. Therefore, the use of fine cement of extreme fineness may not therefore be justified when the extra cost is considered.

CHAPTER

THE SOUNDNESS OF

ART. 29. PERMANENCE

THE permanence of any structure of cement is dependent upon the material after the setting and hardening to retain its strength and form for a definite period. Experiment has shown that from cement of good quality there is no loss in strength and hardness through years, or at least that there is no loss of strength with time; and that

in volume, together with an increase in transference the other way may result; but no distortion of form of the mortar will take place in either case if the cement is of good quality.

Sometimes cement when made hardens properly, and later, when exposed to the action of the atmosphere or water, cracks, or even entirely disintegrates. The position deviates but slightly from the normal position of disintegration may not show itself for a long time, and proceeds very slowly, but is an element of considerable danger, and requires careful detection in testing the cement.

The unsoundness of cement may be caused by defective composition, causing expansion to the action of expansions proceeding from within, or by exterior agencies which attack the cement susceptible to their influence, and act by the method of making

THE SOUNDNESS OF

which gain strength very rapidly and are quite apt to act in this manner, and as noted, the cement may not possess sufficient strength to resist, and the expansive action may cause disintegration.

The term *Permanence of Volume* is the power of the material to resist change of form or dimension in the body of mortar. It is synonymous with *soundness*, if by its power to resist disintegration. Most unsound cements fail by expansion under the action of expansives. However, the failure occurs by a gradual increase of mortar, without appreciable change of form, the process being very slow, so that it may not be noticed for several months after the mortar is set.

ART. 30. FREE

The presence of small quantities of

burned at a low temperature that where the addition of the carbonate produced no nitrate caused swelling and The presence of free lime low index is therefore of special carefully guarded against by tion and complete reactions

The fineness of the cement of the free lime, as finely quicker than coarse grains, to become hydrated before the cement be exposed to in a fine state will sooner be

If free lime be present in slaked before the initial set injury. If it becomes slaked period of hardening, the strength reduced, being rendered less In case this action be not sub

THE SOUNDNESS OF CEMENT

These effects may afterward gradually disappear, but they probably have the effect of making the cement more easily attacked by external agencies. Cements of low hydraulic index, which gain strength during the early period of hardening, are particularly liable to contain appreciable quantities of free lime, frequently shown by a loss of strength when kept extended over a considerable period of time.

Mortar kept under water is acted upon more rapidly than that exposed to dry air.

ART. 31. MAGNESIA

Free magnesia in cement acts very differently from lime. The action of magnesia, however, is not so rapid as that of lime, and for this reason it is less likely to be detected before using. Prof. Le Chatelier found that a cement composed of lime and of magnesia with two

limit the amount of magnesia in Portland cement.

When mortar fails from this cause may not be shown for several days after it has set, and then in a comparatively short time, cracking, and disintegration follow.

Dr. Erdmenger made a large number of experiments upon the effect of adding small quantities of magnesia to Portland cement, and found that when mixed with water and contracted in air; that from 10 to 20 per centable percentages disintegrated, in a few weeks.

The fineness of the grains of magnesia, is important as affecting the result. Prof. Le Chatelier found that when finely ground produced swelling and cracking, but when coarsely ground of finely ground magnesia produced no swelling or cracking the mortar. The change in volume varies with the fineness of the grains.

THE SOUNDNESS OF CEMENT

in a work swelled and cracked, and showed that it contained 16 to 28 per cent of magnesia. Experiments were made by mixing cement, and swelling resulted. The cement was found to be unsuitable for the manufacture of the cement. The proportion of magnesia, which was present in an uncombined state in the cement, was found to be the cause of the swelling. The swelling occurred was found to be proportional to the amount of water available. When mixed with a small quantity and left in dry air no expansion occurred. It is therefore only dangerous in water.

Analyses of this cement are given as follows:

Silicious Sand.	Silica. %	Alumina. %	Iron. %	Lime. %	Magnesia.
.....	14.80	8.00	4.60	47.30	26.30
.....	18.30	2.95	3.60	44.80	20.35
0.35	20.70	3.35	3.65	43.30	28.30

This is not similar to the magnesian cement commonly used in the United States on

not been shown, however, that in the setting of these salts, contribute to the final strength of the process, it is certain cements continue to increase in period, the proportionate increase being much greater than for very moderate action.

ART. 32. ALUMINATE

The exact rôle of aluminates is a matter of considerable doubt, the basic aluminates to act like lime, being decomposed by the action of water upon these aluminates, being given off, with the result that the set of cements containing aluminates in small quantities.

The disintegration of mortars

THE SOUNDNESS OF

with the aluminate may take place causing swelling and, if sufficient action of the mortar.

Aluminates should therefore be to be used for mortar to be exposed to sea-water, as the sulphate of lime of the cement, forming the set, then combines with the alumina to produce the expansive action. For this reason aluminas are not considered desirable.

ART. 33. SULPHUR

The action of sulphur in cement is variable, depending upon the state of the cement and the nature of the cement. The sulphate of lime for the purpose of setting slower has already been discussed. The action depends upon the presence in sufficient quantity to take all

that of adding it afterwards. The two seem to give analogous results. In burned cements it may be that the expansion and hence slow in acting upon the expansion to be delayed.

Mr. Spachman, who has been in the production of Portland cement, concludes* that the danger of using too large proportions of sulphate is the likelihood of forming calcium sulphate by burning, which afterward, when the cement, the sulphide of iron, is exposed, is oxidized to a sulphate, which color of the cement to a brownish color, much of its activity, in setting, is lost at all. Mr. Spachman gives the formula SO_4Ca as what may be said to be the cause.

Prof. Tetmajer states that in the case of Portland cement sometimes a small amount of the fact that it is readily

THE SOUNDNESS

ART. 34. EXTERIOR

The principal exterior agencies which cause the destruction of mortar are in temperature or in humidity and in the conditions with which it may be in contact. Physical agencies, such as the shock of frost and sand produced by a current, may overtax the strength of the mortar during the period of hardening, but they do not cause destruction through injury to the cement.

The effect of frost is to separate the mortar through the freezing of water in the pores. The resistance to it probably depends on the strength of the mortar and on the rate of expansion.

The nature of the water to which the mortar is exposed is important because of the action of salts which it may

which forms a deposit in the
on the contrary, the dissolving
which traverses the mortar is al
a large quantity of carbonate
is carried off by the water."

In regard to the effect of tem
says: "At elevated temperatur
lose their water and are reduce
talline carbonate of soda, and
of the mortar. This is the ca
of lime, especially the alum
experiments are still necessary

"This dehydration occurs i
the well-known fact that certai
in water and attain high stren
to dry hot air disintegrate int

M. Candlot says that "alu
ject to alteration in surround
dryness and humidity, and als
temperature." It should be

THE SOUNDNESS OF

and perhaps ultimate destruction of
ent cements vary greatly in the extent
influenced by this cause, slow-setting
being ordinarily least and the slag cements

ART. 35. EFFECT OF SEA-WATER

The destructive effect of sea-water on
mortars which are sound in fresh water
due to the action of magnesium salts on
the cement, thus forming sulphate of mag-
nesium. The action of these salts on
cement mortars has already been discussed.

When mortar in sea-water fails by
is usually attributed either to the presence
of free lime or magnesia, or to the action
the cement. When the cement cements
expansive action is greatly intensified
compared with that in fresh water. This
explained by the presence of calcium

salts may be washed out, leaving to the action of the disintegrating of any Portland cement may be sea-water if used in such manner. The continuous action of the magnesium

The ultimate hardening of concrete in fresh water, seems to depend on carbonic acid in forming a protection of the elements of disintegration. It resists the penetration of the water, and the renewal in the interior of the concrete becomes protected by the acid and effectually prevents further disintegration of salts.

M. Durand-Claye examined a wall where parts of it were made of a large proportion of magnesia. He found that the parts retained in the original mortar of the wall which were still sound were not attacked by sulphuric acid was also increased.

THE SOUND.

fresh water were unaffected, but those which disintegrated in six months when in fresh water suffered a serious loss of lime and gain in magnesia.

M. Alexandre also found that calcareous sand is attacked by acids, containing them may be dissolved, and is good."

CHAPTER

METHODS OF TEST

ART. 36. OBJE

TESTS of cement may have for their object the examination of the quality of the cement to determine its fitness for use, or to determine the properties of the cement for use in concrete. The knowledge of its behavior under the conditions of use. Where experiments are made for this object, the tests to be applied must of course be dependent on the results to be investigated.

METHODS OF TESTING

laws governing the action of
examinations upon particular po
take into account the variable
and the necessity for exact know
the cement upon which the test

The French Commission upon
ing the Materials of Construction
the permanent laboratories ce
atically tested in the following
analyses; fineness; specific gr
homogeneity; time of setting;
ural, and adhesive strength;
porosity; permeability; resista
sea-water; and yield of mortar.

Tests of cement, as common
upon engineering work, have
determination of the quality of t
for the use. Tests for this purp
ing to some recognized stand
approximate the conditions of

cumstances of its use. The material varying so greatly in character under various conditions is evident in the case of a particular brand of cement whose character may readily be determined when it is of normal quality, and something may be predicted for its future from its behavior under normal conditions. A little, however, can be done in the case of a new and unknown material, and it is possible to state a somewhat indefinite range of results.

Tests may be imposed which will secure good material, but often the subjecting of equally good or better material will be unavoidable until the character of the various brands of cement are more fully known, in which case each should be subjected to the same tests.

The tests which are usually applied to determine the quality of hydraulic cement are the compression test, the tensile test, the

METHODS OF TESTING

in so far as it has been shown by subsequent tests that the cement is subsequently maintaining such strength. The method of producing to produce cement which will de- short-time tests is liable to result in an index, or the addition of calcium times in the presence of free lime is likely to be unsound than one of

The test for soundness or per- an important one, as giving an in- durability of the material; but in tests, a knowledge of the usual ac- contribute greatly to the proper in-

The test for fineness is also im- the power of the cement to take

It was recommended by the com- Society of Civil Engineers upon testing, that tests for quality be three most important tests—fin- and soundness; and this recom- monly followed in the United S-

and well burned. Variations in the weight, so that there may be in the weight of various cement well burned.

The apparent density is affected by the weight of the cement which the cement is ground; of the cement the greater its weight the weight test when employed combined with one for fineness of heavy weight by coarse grinding.

The test for apparent density for the reception of material, and in result. It is, however, sometimes in England, and is used in laboratories where a careful study is made of cement.

As the cement powder may vary so as to give very different weights it is necessary to use a uniform method of determining the

METHODS OF TESTING

measure (M) of 1 litre capacity and is provided with ears which catch up the two levers (L). The frame is raised on the turn of the hand-wheel by the cam mechanism of jars to the measure.

Above the measure a sieve (R) is supported by a system of levers which are hinged to the frame by the rod (V), giving two oscillations.

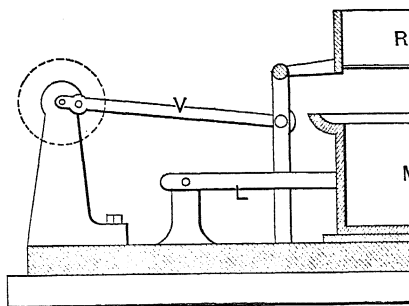
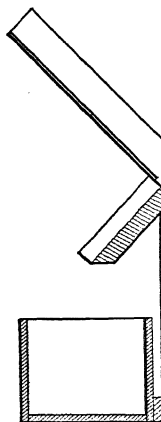


FIG. 1.

Inclined-plane Apparatus
 ratus for apparent density
 of forms, one of which, em-
 mended by the Commissio
 Matériaux de Construction,



METHODS OF TESTING

The cement is poured in small quantities from the secondary plane so slowly that it does not fill the opening between the planes, until it is struck and weighed.

A single inclined plane of some 45° (50 cm.) is sometimes used, the material is poured upon the upper end and allowed to run down to the measure. It is said, however, to give less accurate results than the double plane method, and requires extreme care.

German Funnel Apparatus.—This method is recommended by the German committee for the testing of materials, as was also the method of the American committee.

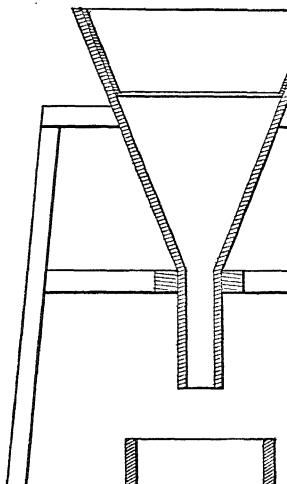
The funnel is formed of a hollow cone, the height vertical, as shown in Fig. 3. The height is 18 cm., its upper base is 20 cm. in diameter, terminated at the lower end by a cone 5 cm. high, with a lower base of 10 cm. The funnel is supported upon a stand 10 cm. above the table and

with a sieve fitting into the measure below. The cement gradually worked through the sieve, then slides down the funnel and the measure is filled.



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requires careful manipulation to secure a uniform rate of filling the measure and to avoid segregation and compacting. The inclined plane and funnel apparatus are found to give the most reliable results recommended by the commission



creased weight which would require grinding. The coarse particles are the hardest burned and therefore require the most cement. To accomplish this the grinding is made as fine as possible in order to obtain a fine, uniform, and payable powder. In Europe a No. 100 sieve per square centimeter is employed, which corresponds to the No. 180 sieve in the United States per inch.

The Committee upon Cement of the American Society of Civil Engineers, after a long and careful study of the various methods of making weight tests, has recommended the American method of making weight tests. This method is the most practical use and it is not customary to make any test of this kind. The results of such tests under the various conditions are great, and the results are so uniform that the method of grinding that when a density test by gravity is usually determined. The American Society in 1904 recommended the specific

METHODS OF TESTING

method of determination which c
tests. The differences of specific gr
are, however, very small, and grea
the manipulation of the test in o
results.

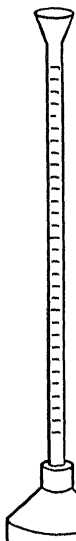
The test for specific gravity is
immersing a known weight of th
which will not act upon it, and
through noting the volume of
making the test by this method it
the air-bubbles contained in the
eliminated, and that the volume o
cement particles only.

Schumann Volumenometer.—Seve
have been used for this purpose. C
volumenometer, shown in Fig. 5,
common. It consists of a gradu
of which is ground to fit closely int

In the use of the apparatus the
the flask and filled with benzine

through a long funnel, thus of the tube dry.

In some instances greater obtained by filling the appara



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of the apparatus the tube is turned up and the bulb filled with benzine. The flask is placed upon the tube, the apparatus inverted, and a reading taken of the height reached by the liquid. A weighed quantity of cement is then placed in the tube, which is turned upside down and the flask for the purpose. The flask is then turned the whole again inverted, the volume of the liquid in the tube is read, and the difference of the liquid in the tube. In order to remove the bubbles the apparatus is shaken before taking a reading so as to thoroughly mix the cement with the liquid.

This method is much more rapid than the Schumann volumometer, but is not so satisfactory in result.

Le Chatelier's Volumometer.—The apparatus is shown in Fig. 6. It consists of a flask the neck of which is drawn out into a tube 1 cm. in diameter and in the middle the tube enlarges into a bulb and then again continues with uniform diameter to the top. The flask to a point marked

weighing the apparatus before introduced. Or, this volume in the same manner as that of serving to prevent the cement tube.



METHODS OF TESTING

commonly somewhat volatile and should be kept low in order that the results should not be affected by the evaporation. When the apparatus is used the temperature should not be allowed to rise.

The committee on Uniform Tests of the American Society of Civil Engineers recommends the use of the Le Chatelier apparatus. The apparatus should be submerged in water in a bath of constant temperature.

The recommendation of the committee is as follows:—
“*Significance.*—The specific gravity should be determined by underburning, adulteration should be determined by the adulteration must be in contact with the water to affect the results appreciably.

“Inasmuch as the differences in specific gravity are usually very small, great care must be taken in making the determination.

“When properly made, this test is a reliable method for underburning or adulteration.

“*Apparatus and Method.*—The apparatus should be of gravity is most conveniently made of glass and should be

the lower mark and 64 grs. (2.25 cc.) of the cement previously dried at 100° C. (212° F.) are placed in the upper bulb. The temperature of this liquid, is gradually lowered until the top of the funnel (the stem of which extends to the top of the bulb) until the upper mark is reached. The difference in weight between the cement in the upper bulb and the original quantity (64 grs.) is the weight of the cement displaced 20 cu. cm.

“(2) The whole quantity of the cement is placed in the upper bulb and the level of the liquid rises to the upper mark of the graduated neck. This reading plus the weight of the volume displaced by 64 gr. of the cement is the weight of the cement displaced 20 cu. cm.

“The specific gravity is then obtained by dividing the weight of the cement displaced 20 cu. cm. by the weight of the cement displaced 64 grs.

$$\text{Specific gravity} = \frac{\text{Weight of cement displaced 20 cu. cm.}}{\text{Weight of cement displaced 64 grs.}}$$

“The flask, during the operation, is held in water in a jar, in order to maintain a constant temperature of the liquid. The temperature of the liquid is within 0.01° C. of the temperature of the water in the jar.

METHODS OF TESTING

land cement varies from about 3.05 to 3.15, usually above 3.05. Natural cements are usually above 3.10. An inferior limit is sometimes specified—usually for Portland cement about 2.80. For Roman cement about 2.80. The test is often specified for natural cements.

The presence of the volatile elements, or of incomplete burning, or of adulterations, or of aging, tends to lower the specific gravity. The test of adulteration, however, needs to be made only if it becomes appreciable in the results. The test of chemical composition also to some extent. The specific gravity, cements of low hydraulic value, cements of low values. The age of the cement tends to reduce the specific gravity. The specific gravity of fresh cement. The specific gravity, is not affected by the fineness.

This test is not commonly applied for the reception of cement upon work.

that the cement will give good sand.

The fineness which should be a matter of relative economy; the larger the quantity of sand used with it. The coarse part may be considered as inert material. The amount of sand already mixed is a question therefore of relative fineness.

There is, however, some question of fineness. Some European authorities have adopted a fineness test. It is a question of fineness in the strength of the mortar, some extent with time, but the question is to be the really valuable part of the mortar. If the sand be omitted the cement loses its value.

Prof. Le Chatelier in his experiments on mortar found that, after the sand particles no trace is left of the cement. With the larger sand the cement is

METHODS OF TESTING

The Committee of the American Engineers in 1904 recommended with-
ness test as follows:

“*Significance.*—It is generally accepted that the particles in cement are practically all the extremely fine powder that gives the cementing qualities. The more fine the particles, all other conditions being the same, the better the cement will carry and produce a mortar of

“The degree of final pulverization is determined by the residue it receives at the place of manufacture. This is measured by measuring the residue retained on a sieve known as the No. 100 and No. 200. The No. 100 is recommended for this purpose.

“*Apparatus.*—The sieves should be 20 cm. (7.87 inches) in diameter, 10 cm. (3.94 inches) high, and provided with a pan, 5 cm. (1.97 inches) and a cover.

“The wire cloth should be woven of brass wire having the following dimensions:

Method.—The Committee, has reached the conclusion that the method is not as practicable or efficient as the method recommended, and recommends the following method.

“The thoroughly dried and ground sample is weighed and placed on the sieve, the pan and cover attached, is held in a vertical inclined position, and moved up and down at the same time striking the surface of the sieve. On the other hand, at the rate of 100 strokes per minute. The operation is continued until less than one tenth of 1 per cent of the sample remains on the sieve. The residue is then placed on the No. 100 sieve and the residue is then placed on the No. 100 sieve. The work may be expedited by using a small quantity of large shot. The residue is reported to the nearest tenth of 1 per cent.”

The British Standard Specification for Engineering Standards Commission recommends the following requirements for fine

METHODS OF TESTING CEMENT

ART. 40. NORMAL CONSISTENCY

In order to secure uniform results in tests as well as for rate of setting, it is essential that a standard consistency be adopted for the cement mortar. The effects upon setting and strength of varying the quantity of water used in making mortar have been discussed in Art. 24.

In making standard tests it is common to use a fixed quantity of water by trying to bring the mortar to a standard consistency which shall be uniform for all tests. Cements require very different quantities of water to reach the same consistency, and in making mortar the nature and condition of the sand may cause considerable variation. It should be noted that the consistency of paste does not depend upon the quantity of water used, but upon the manner and extent of working the

NORMAL CON

Significance.—The use of water in making the pastes * setting, and briquettes are m tant and affects vitally the resu

“The determination consists of water required to reduce th of plasticity, or to what is usu consistency.

“Various methods have been determination, none of which satisfactory. The committee

“*Method.* *Vicat Needle A* (Fig. 8) of a frame bearing a at one end and at the oth (0.39 inch) in diameter, th weighing 300 gr. (10.58 oz.). held in any desired position l cator, which moves over a scal

METHODS OF TESTING

the operation by tossing it six times. The larger end, the other, maintained 6 inches above the surface and pressed into the rubber ring through the hole. The larger end smoothed off, and placed on a glass plate (the larger end) and the smaller end smoothed off. The paste confined in the ring resting on the glass plate under the rod bearing the cylinder. The rod is then in contact with the surface and quickly removed.

"The paste is of normal consistency. It is pressed into the ring and penetrates to a point in the mass of the paste about 1/2 inch below the top of the ring. Great care is taken to fill the ring exactly to the top.

"The trial pastes are made with varying amounts of water until the correct consistency is reached.

"The Committee has recommended a standard consistency of which is rather variable so that variations in the amount of water used in the briquette is subjected in moulding. It is less with such a paste.

"Having determined in this manner the correct consistency

can recommendations, the re
plunger shall sink to a point 6
tom of the paste for standard c

Another method somewhat us
by the French Commission i
Boulogne method. The metho

The paste is to be vigorous
to bring it to the required cons

"1. The consistency of the
sensibly if the mixing be con
the expiration of the required

"2. If a small quantity of
the trowel and allowed to fall
a height of 50 centimeters it
the trowel without leaving an
and after falling should app
without cracking.

"3. A small quantity take
into a round form until wa
should not stick to the hand

METHODS OF TESTING C

The Committee of the American Materials in 1904 suggest the percentage following table, the percentage for first determined by the test above given consistency.

PERCENTAGE OF WATER FOR CEMENT M CONSISTENCY.

Percentage Water for Neat Cement.	Proportions Cement to Sand by Weight.					Percentage Water for Neat Cement.	Propo	
	1-1	1-2	1-3	1-4	1-5		1-1	
18	12.0	10.0	9.0	8.4	8.0	30	16.0	I
19	12.3	10.2	9.2	8.5	8.1	31	16.3	I
20	12.7	10.4	9.3	8.7	8.2	32	16.7	I
21	13.0	10.7	9.5	8.8	8.3	33	17.0	I
22	13.3	10.9	9.7	8.9	8.4	34	17.3	I
23	13.7	11.1	9.8	9.1	8.5	35	17.7	I
24	14.0	11.3	10.0	9.2	8.6	36	18.0	I
25	14.3	11.6	10.2	9.3	8.8	37	18.3	I
26	14.7	11.8	10.3	9.5	8.9	38	18.7	I
27	15.0	12.0	10.5	9.6	9.0	39	19.0	I

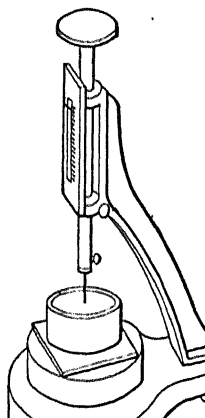
Testing for time of setting at two points in the process is called the beginning and end points are differently determined by the method of testing, and are not merely phenomena which admit of

A method of testing for setting proposed by General Gilmore and recommended by the American Society of Civil Engineers is still quite largely used in the testing of concrete in mixing cakes of neat cement. The cake is 6 inch diameter and $1\frac{1}{2}$ inch thick. The time is observed when the cake is first able to sustain a weight in diameter sustaining a weight of one pound. This is taken as the beginning of setting. The end is observed with a needle. The time is taken when a weight of one pound will not sink into the firm to bear this, when it is

The time of setting is determined in practice by making small cakes

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arrangement is shown in Fig. 8. The
quette of neat cement is made in
or rubber mould 10 centimeters in
timeters high, placed upon a plate
cement being mixed to a plastic con
by the consistency test. The app
that a weight of 300 grammes m



and the time when the needle passes through the mortar is observed of setting; the time when the briquette without penetration of setting.

The accurate determination of points where the set is said to be of some difficulty, as the causes the needle to sink more than in others, and the circumference than in the center. However, these defects are not exercised in mixing the mortar not taken too near the edge of set is much less well defined of set, as there is usually which a very slight penetration insensibly to final disappearance for completion of the set. The penetration becomes very small, so that the surface becomes practically horizontal.

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set'). The former of these is since, with the commencement of crystallization or hardening is a disturbance of this process may prevent it is desirable to complete the moulding or incorporating the before the cement begins to set.

"It is usual to measure arbitrary end of the setting by the penetration of given diameters.

"*Method.*—For this purpose has already been described in used.

"In making the test, a paste moulded and placed under the graph 31; this rod, bearing the needle, 1 mm. (0.039 inch) in weighing 300 gr. (10.58 oz.). T fully brought in contact with the

the collection of cement on the surface, and the penetration, while cement is in the area and tends to increase the area.

"The determination of the time of setting is approximate, being materially affected by the amount of the mixing water, the temperature of the air during the test, the humidity of the air, and the amount of moulding.

The time of setting is not a reliable test for neat cement, on account of the fact that a satisfactory test with sand is not possible, and is quite useless when sand is used, on account of the interference of the grains of sand with the needle. Rough tests of the time of setting by methods may readily be made for practical purposes, and will give a more nearly what may be used. The rate of setting is a good indication of what the actual time of setting of different cements a mortar

METHODS OF TEST

employed: when the mortar weighs 400 grammes it is considered as set; it will sustain 10,000 grammes.

M. Feret has also proposed a test by using fine sand composed of a sieve of 75 meshes and are heated per linear inch, the test being made with the Vicat needle. This shows the effects of sand upon different mortars.

In making tests for rate of setting of the ingredients of the mortar, the influence of the atmosphere in which it is placed, or water in which it is placed, has a very large influence upon the results. A temperature of 60° to 65° Fahr. is usually used, although the air in the laboratory is at a higher temperature—perhaps 65°.

CHANGE OF TEMPERATURE

sets more quickly. The temperature of the cement may reach 15° or 20° and it may be quite imperceptible.

The change in temperature, the nature of the cement, and a number of other factors connect it with the soundness. Especially the presence of free lime seems to be supported by facts. The changes are very indefinite. Expansion, contraction, and therefore danger of cracking are likely to cause increase in temperature.

The test for change in temperature is made by placing the mortar in a container and used with the Vicat needle, which is an opening to permit the insertion of a thermometer. This cover is placed in contact with the air or water, thus neutralizing the effect of temperature.

Some very slow-setting cements

CHAPTER

TESTS OF THE STRENGTH

ART. 42. METHOD

THE strength of mortar is tested in two ways: the tensile test is the one most employed, but compressive and crushing are often used.

The test for tensile strength is made by pressing together the ends of the mortar in moulds at the middle,—in the United States the test is made on a square,—and enlarging at the

The transverse test is made by casting the concrete into bars, the bar is a afterv supports near its ends, and upon its middle, causing it

The proper conduct of a requiring care and experie connected with the circumst work which have an impor These are: the form of the mixing and moulding; the tempering the mortar; the mortar is kept during the ha of applying the stress; the the operations are perform form results it is essential in all of these particulars. in this direction during rece disparity in the results of d due mainly to differences

Every laborator seems

TESTS OF THE STR

materials so as to obtain c
results.

"The first tests of inex
and careful persons are usu
inaccurate, and no amount
the variations introduced b
the most conscientious obs
ently of minor importance, c
upon the results that it is
every particular, aided by
that trustworthy tests can be

Experience since the re
made has shown that the d
formity in such tests are n
imagined.

The variations in the resu
the work of different exper
the same method and upon
quently very large, and o
between the acceptance a

News, March 5, 1896) show was but 30% of the highest quite evenly distributed but. Each result was the average agree fairly well among them.

If the results of experience laboratories vary so much, tests made by less experienced of material upon temporary specification be framed which shall of the material? Evidently with hand-work, the inspection and the specifications drawn practice of the laboratory. that some means be devised tests may be made automatically factor eliminated in so far as

In standard tests it is constant temperature of 60 in the laboratory in which

TESTS OF THE

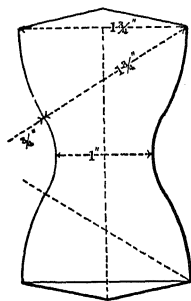
is employed. In the are each two inches although sometimes a generally the standard seven centimeters in le

The French "Com Materials," however, for compression specimens to so fill the corners of ous briquettes, and th as preferable. They briquettes obtained by crushing test.

For transverse tests used. Different exper ent dimensions, and t ably be called a stan the adoption of this t the acceptance of m test-piece of a section

meters. The middle section
mm. thick, giving a cross-sect

Comparative tests of briquet
that the English form gives hig
the difference being commo
much as 30% to 40% of the s
be accounted for by the fact
a sudden change of cross-se
of weakness, and while the
gradually from the ends to



TESTS OF THE STR

meters. The use of these sn
as it admits of lighter appar
because greater uniformity is
the briquette. The work a
that less mortar is required
larger sections, so that more
from each mixing.

The size of the breaking
effect upon the strength,
much higher strength per u
ones. Thus for neat ceme
1 inch square to one 2 inc
to lessen the tensile strengt
one half that of the smaller
has shown that the strength
perimeter of the section th
the interior may be removed

M. Alexandre made a n
the relative strengths of br
He found that large briquet

"While the form of the former Committee of the Soc this Committee is not pre other than rounding off of t radius.

"The moulds should b some equally non-corrodi metal in the sides to preven

"Gang moulds, which p briquettes at one time, ar moulds, since the greater c mixed tends to produce gr

"The moulds should be using."

ART. 44. S

Tests with sand may b judging the value of the probable strength of mo which may obtain in

TESTS OF THE S

obtained by washing and obtainable, sifting the sand per square centimeter, the particles, and by removing by means of a sieve of 120 the finest particles. The sieve shall be 0.38 millimeters. The German Commission on Methods specified Freienwalde sand.

In France both artificial and natural sand are used. The Commission on Methods use of natural sand. The sizes:

1. Sand which passes openings of 0.5 mm. and is retained by those of 1.5 mm.
2. Sand which passes openings of 1.5 mm. and is retained by those of 2.5 mm.

STANDARD

"The Committee recognizes the standard quartz now generally used on account of its high percentage of voids, its freedom from settling in the moulds, and its uniformity. It has spent much time in investigating various sands which appeared to be available.

"For the present, the standard sand is natural sand from Ottawa, having 20 meshes per linear inch. The sand having 30 meshes per linear inch has diameters of 0.0165 and 0.015, and half the width of the opening of the sieve. It passed the No. 20 sieve 95 per cent when not more than 1 per cent was retained by one minute continuous sifting.

"The Sandusky Portland Cement Co., Sandusky, Ohio, has agreed to furnish the standard of this sand, and to furnish

TESTS OF THE S

nature of the sand; its fineness is determined by the amount retained by various sieves. The sand to be examined under a glass plate is of a definite weight of a unit volume. Tests of the tensile strength of sand to be tested as compared with standard sand are of no value unless the value of the sand to be compared is known. mortar.

ART. 45. METHODS

The wide differences of results of tensile tests made by different methods are mainly due to differences in the methods used. Probably if the other standard methods were used as that of tension tests, the differences would be observable in the results. not only in the work of

the method of forming the briquet used in placing the mortar in the

In making briquettes by hand are employed corresponding to of the mortar. The plastic method employed, being used in England and United States, while the dry method is used in many.

The report of the French commission on tests in 1892 recommends the following:

"The moulds are placed upon a polished metal which has been washed with an oiled cloth. Six moulds are used for gauging if the cement be slow-setting, and three for quick-setting. Sufficient material is placed in each mould to more than fill it. The mortar is pressed into the mould with the fingers and the side of the mould tapped with a trowel to assist in disengaging the mortar. The excess of mortar is then removed with a trowel over the top of the mould so as to

TESTS OF THE STRENGTH

removing them from the mould to test the regularity of their formation."

A method somewhat in use in France is that proposed by M. Candolle, of the Commission upon Methods of Testing, for use with sand mortars. It is as follows:

"Sufficient mortar is gauged to form briquettes, requiring 250 grammes of cement and 100 grammes of normal sand. The weight necessary exceeds by 30 grammes that required for bringing the cement alone to *normal* consistency."

The mortar is prepared in the following manner: forming the briquette the mould is placed on a glass plate and a guide fitted above it to regulate the height as the mould and a height of 12 millimetres.

"180 grammes of mortar are placed in the mould and distributed by means of a metallic pestle weighing 100 grammes with a base of the form of the briquette. If the less dimensions, the mortar is stronger and stronger upon

Following are the specifications of German Cement Mortar.

“On a metal or thick-glass plate, 10 centimeters square, five moulds wetted with water are placed. 750 grammes of standard mortar, thoroughly mixed dry in a mortar, is then mixed with 1 liter of fresh water and mixed for five minutes. When the moulds are at once filled, the mortar is to be rounded on top, the surface is smoothed. By means of an iron trowel, the surface is 10 centimeters long, and weighed. The projecting mortar is pounded with a trowel on the sides, then harder into the mould. The mortar is elastic and water flushes to the surface. At least one minute is necessary for the mortar and pounding in of the mortar. The test-pieces of the same density at the different tests are now cut off with a knife and

TESTS OF THE STRENGTH

for five minutes. The forms are
proceed as for hand-work with s

"The mould can only be taken
has sufficiently hardened.

"The quantity of water for
setting cements must be increased

The rules recommended by
American Society of Civil Engineers
following method of making briquets

MIXING.

"All proportions should be stated
quantity of water to be used should be
of the dry material.

"The metric system is recommended
venient relation of the gramme and

"The temperature of the room
should be as near 21° C. (70° F.)
maintain it.

"The sand and cement should
dry. The mixing should be done

by the aid of a trowel. As absorbed, which should not re the operation is completed b the hands for an additional r similar to that used in kne affords a convenient guide During the operation of mixi tected by gloves, preferably

MOUL

“Having worked the pas consistency, it is at once pla

“The Committee has been results with the present mo tion of machine moulding is types permit of moulding b and are not practicable with recommended.

“*Method.*—The moulds s material pressed in firmly w off with a trowel without ra

TESTS OF THE STRENGTH

ing briquettes by hand: first, the thoroughly worked in gauging; French rules require that it shall at least five minutes, only sufficient compared at once for five or six briquettes bubbles must be well worked out of the moulds. The neglect of this causes much of the irregularity which occurs in the work of inexperienced operators.

It is perhaps easier to secure uniformity in the dry than with the plastic method, and the density of the hammered briquettes is greater than the strength. The plastic method, however, is nearly with the conditions of the dry method in practice.

Even with the most experienced operators, differences in the amount of work done in forming the briquette, and the conditions which cause wide variations in results.

In order to secure good results, it is necessary that the briquettes

"A moist closet or chamber for the use of the damp cloth should be used. Covering the test pieces with a damp cloth as commonly used, because the test pieces are equally, and, in consequence, the test pieces are maintained under the same conditions. If a closet is not available, a cloth should be uniformly wet by immersing it in water and should be kept from direct contact with the test pieces by means of a wire screen or similar device.

"A moist closet consists of a box or a metal-lined wooden box covered with felt and this felt is so constructed that the sides are provided with cleats on which to place the bricks to keep the air in the closet uniform.

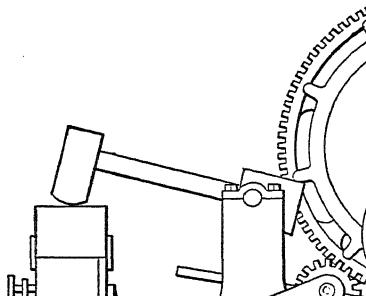
"After twenty-four hours the test pieces for longer periods should be maintained as near 21° C. (70° F.) as possible. They should be stored in tanks or pans

TESTS OF THE STRENGTH

No entirely satisfactory system has as yet been devised. In Europe commonly employed for moulding mixing is done by hand in the ordi

In Germany and Switzerland a sive tests are made by machine, tensile specimens. The machine is either the Bohmé hammer or th

The *Bohmé hammer*, designed Charlottenburg Experiment Station
11. It consists of an arrangement



upon the personality of the method. The arrangement is such that its operation must give time for the hammer being caught on the next stroke. The time for the hammer to make a briquette is too great.

The rules of the Association of Machine-makers specify this machine in order to obtain concordant machine-making is necessary. cement and 1200 grammes thoroughly mixed dry in a water of water are added thereto, thoroughly mixed for five minutes. grammes are placed in the guide-mould, and the mould bed-plate under the pounder. lower is placed in the form. trip-hammer one hundred and a hammer weighing 2 kilograms guide-mould and follower the

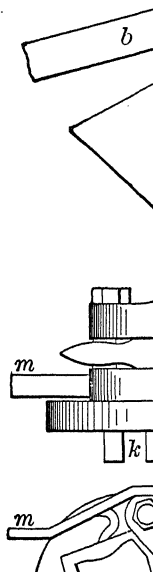
TESTS OF THE ST

the number of blows by re
work to be done upon a
kilogrammeter of work per
which the mortar is compo
ject to the same limitation
hammer, in being very slo
pensive in first cost of appa

Canadian Method.—In
in England, the method h
the mortar quite soft, usin
with machine-mixing and
under light pressure—20
surface of the briquette.
for strength than the ordin
portant provided the resul
fications are made to agree

A number of tests made
McGill University seem t
capable of yielding uniform
tions of the individual test
series is concerned. The m

is very simple. A v
section conforms to the



TESTS OF THE STRENGTH

in the cylinder may be subjected to a pressure of 175 lbs. per square inch. The cylinder is raised above the bed-plate a distance equal to the thickness of the briquette (1 inch) by means of a triangular block (*l*) having the same cross-section as the briquette. The cylinder is then to bring either of these holes below the surface of the one hole is in this position, however, the cylinder at one side, and the hole is then pressed into it can be removed by a lever (*m*) and guided by the pressure used the briquette is then removed as soon as lifted from the cylinder once removed and placed on a bed-plate.

“In practical working it has been found that the machine makes briquettes as rapidly as the hand.

This machine may be found useful in all cases where large numbers of briquettes are required for the purpose of comparing cements. It is greatly lessens the time required to make the briquette. It is to be of

as appliances for moulding briquettes shows uniform results may be obtained from briquettes under a single application of a steady

method may be applied much more rapidly than the hammer method, with about as good results, and the results of different operators much more uniform than can be obtained by hand-work, although the deviations from the mean in the work of a single operator may be as great or greater than in the hand-

work of neat cement, machine-mixed, and moulded under a pressure of about 500 lbs., upon the surface of the briquette, give good results when the averages of the work of men are compared, and small variations in the pressure are not important in the results.

For sand mortar, one part cement to three parts sand under a pressure of 1000 to 1500 lbs. is desirable to compact the mortar to form homogeneous briquettes and give uniformity in the results.

In the best results the mortar should be gauged to a consistency that the water begins to ooze out under a pressure, the cakes being reduced to a semi-solid condition, and becoming too soft to handle before

the apparatus for making briquettes by this method is arranged, but no satisfactory method of manipulating the briquettes so as to produce them with reasonable

For this purpose several appliances have

mixer is an apparatus in which the materials in cups with covers clamped on, and shaken and down. It has been tried in a number but has usually been found quite unsatisfactory. It is difficult to make a satisfactory by this method, and the result depends very on the rapidity of operation.

Wijja mixer was designed and first used by Mr. England. It is shown in Fig. 13, as made Bros. Testing Machine Company, of Philadelphia and consists of a cylindrical pan in which a rimmed of four curved blades, revolves both on axis and about that of the pan. This arrangement fairly good results in use.

shows an arrangement used by the author Laboratory of the College of Civil Engineering University.

apparatus the cylinder containing the materials thus avoiding the dust, which is very disadvantageous with the open pan. The cover revolves about the axis of the cylinder, and the gear is placed outside to avoid any danger of it becoming clogged. The cover is formed of vertical rods held by a horizontal arm, which revolves about the axis of the cylinder and also about the point of the arm.

use any system of making briquettes by hand

le of securing good results under careful manipula-
are too slow or clumsy in operation and require
careful management to make them desirable for



FIG. 13.

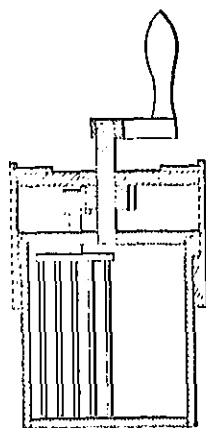


FIG. 14.

hl use. The American Society Committee in 1904
t as follows upon this matter:

he Committee, after investigation of the various
anical mixing-machines, has decided not to recom-
any machine that has thus far been devised, for
ollowing reasons:

1) The tendency of most cement is to 'ball up' in
achine, thereby preventing the working of it into a
ogeneous paste; (2) there are no means of ascertain-
when the mixing is complete without stopping the

or tensile strength is commonly made by
briquette in a pair of clips which catch its
attached to a machine by which the load
break the briquette may be weighed. In
re uniform results it is necessary that the
e so applied as to bring the tension axially

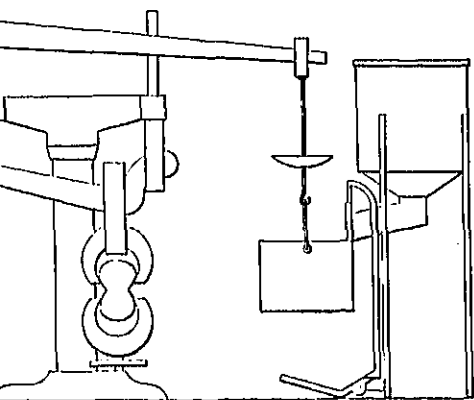


FIG. 15.

all section of the briquette, and also that the
ration of the load shall be always the same.
various types of testing-machines in use,
is unnecessary to enter into any detailed
of them here.

uelis machine, shown in Fig. 15, consists of
rs suspended from the framework carrying
e clips which hold the specimen and at the

of Michaelis. In the Fairbanks machine the shot is weighed and the stress determined by the same beam in breaking the specimen, the bucket being hung at the other end of the beam from that used in breaking the specimen, and the weight found by means of a sliding poise, the beam being graduated to read stress upon the scale.

The *Riché Machine*, shown in Fig. 16, is an ordinary machine in which the load is brought upon the specimen by means of the lower hand-wheel, while the poise is moved along the scale-beam by the upper hand-wheel. In testing a briquette both wheels must be turned simultaneously and the scale-beam be kept horizontal.

The *Olsen Machine*, shown in Fig. 17, is similar in principle to the above, but differs somewhat in detail. This machine has been modified by Prof. Porter in 1882, constructed for Lafayette College, by adding a second lever below the clips, through which the stress is exerted by means of water flowing into a bucket attached to the end. The stress is measured by the weight sliding along the upper scale-beam as in the ordinary machine, but the weight is moved automatically by means of an arm in contact at the end of the beam.

Various modifications of these machines and others of a more complicated type are frequently employed. Nearly all of the machines in common use may give good results in practice. In selecting a machine, however, those are

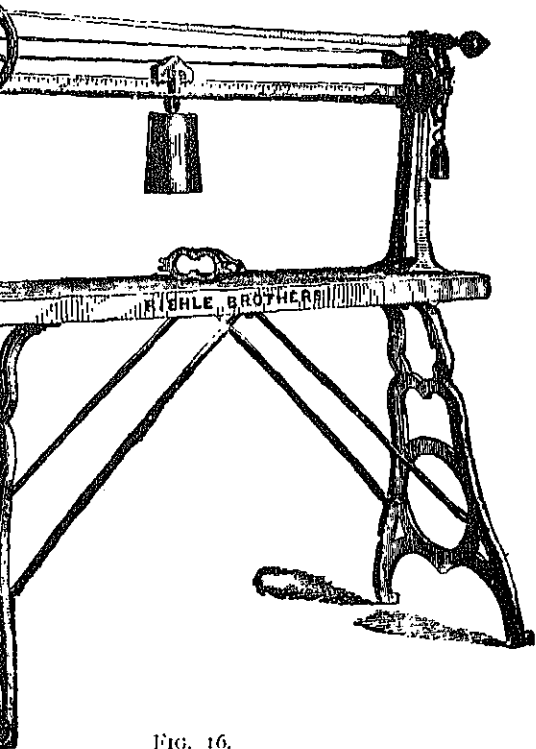


FIG. 16.

that the stress upon the briquette shall be
must be exercised in properly centring the
the clips, and the form of the clip must
it shall not clamp or bind upon the head
ette, but may be free to adjust itself to an

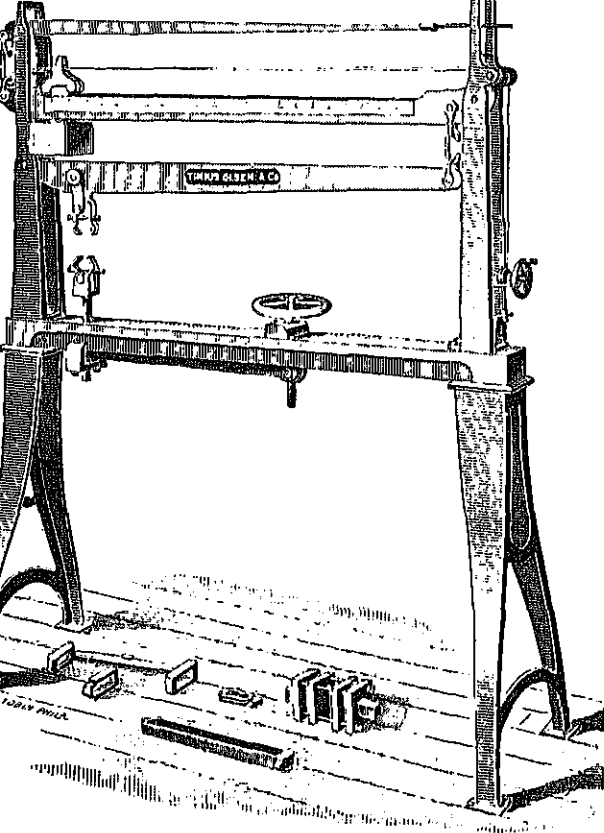


FIG. 17.

yet as small as possible to admit of its more free adjustment. The suspension of the clips, as is, by conical bearings permits them to turn so as

an briquette. As here given it is approved
ssion des Méthodes d'Essai des Matériaux
1," as giving very satisfactory results.

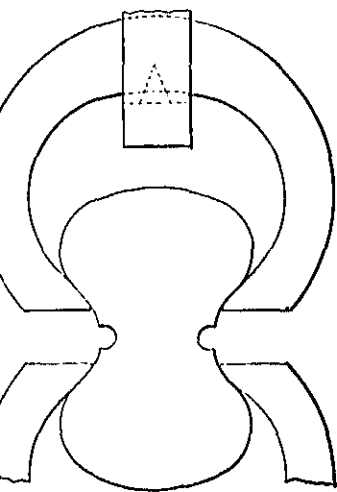


FIG. 18.

uette used in the United States and Eng-
ms have been used for clips. Fig. 19
adopted by the Committee of the American
Engineers in 1885. This form does
ent bearing-surface for good results, as
likely to break on account of the crushing
f the briquette at the point of contact.
wn in Fig. 20 has been much used, but
tage of clamping the head of the briquette
unless great care is used may cause the

points of contact irregularly to the small section, break due to twisting may often be a centre break, the irregularity show only in the results.

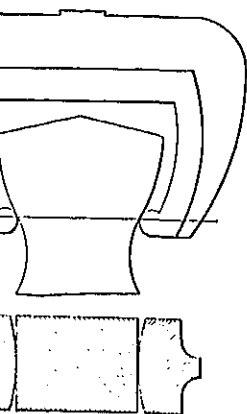


FIG. 19.

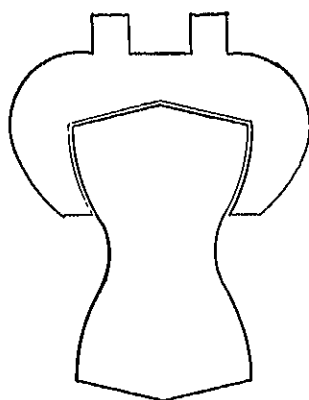


FIG. 20.

form of clip shown in Fig. 21 is recommended by committee of the American Society of Civil Engineers

This form is a decided improvement over the forms, but seems to give rather too small area of contact between the briquette and clips for the best

It avoids twisting the briquette and permits free adjustment to axial stress.

in order to prevent crushing at the points of contact and to permit more free adjustment Mr. W. R. Cockfield proposed* a rubber bearing, as shown in Fig. 22.

* *Engineering News*, Dec. 20, 1890.

pliances have been proposed for the accurate placing of briquettes, or to prevent the more free of the clips to the direction of stress, by

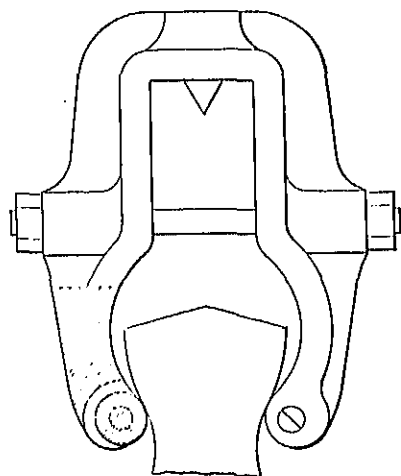


FIG. 22.

ate for the exact placing of the briquette, g the clips at the upper corners. These do not, however, seem to be necessary.

ittee of the American Society of Civil 1904 made the following recommendations ts for tensile strength:

may be made on any standard machine. A clip is recommended. This clip is to be

pieces should be broken in such a way as to prevent the pieces from the water. Care should be observed in placing the briquette in the testing-machine, as cross-breaks, produced by improper centring, tend to lower breaking-strength. The load should not be applied suddenly, as it may produce vibration, the shock of which often breaks the briquette before the ultimate strength is reached. Care must be taken that the clips on the sides of the briquettes be clean and free from sand or dirt, which would prevent a good bearing. The load should be applied at the rate of 600 lbs. per inch. The average of the briquettes of each sample should be taken as the test, excluding any results which are manifestly faulty.

ART. 48. COMPRESSIVE TESTS.

The compressive strength of cement-mortar is much greater than its tensile strength, and as it does not seem to give a better indication of value, while more difficult of satisfactory determination, and also requires heavier apparatus, it is not usually employed as a test of quality for the acceptance of material. The compressive test is, however, valuable for purposes of comparison, and is valuable as an addition to the showing made by the tensile test. In the European experiment stations it is customary to test all cements under compression as well as tension.

cause the material to spread laterally by the sides, failure usually occurring by shearing inclined at about 30° with the vertical, and conical blocks at the middle.

If the specimen is small in height the resistance per unit area than if it be higher, and for blocks the resistance increases with the size. Commonly employed for this purpose, but sometimes preferred, on account of the facility with which homogeneous specimens may be prepared because of the liability of the corners of cubes to chip off under comparatively light pressure.

The standard piece in Europe is a cube with edges 10 mm long, moulded under the hammer, and it is required that the pressure be always applied to opposite faces of the cube, that is, on the faces parallel to the surface of the mould, in forming

At a conference at Berlin, however, recommendation of blocks 5 square centimeters in area, and 10 mm high, for tensile specimens.

The "Commission on Methods of Testing Materials" made the following recommendations:

For the determination of compressive strength the half-briquettes and the half-cylinders are to be used. Each half-briquette is to be crushed separately, and the sum of the two results is to be taken as the strength of the specimen.

In the case of half-briquettes, cylinders 45 milli-

stone surface."

The testing apparatus should be so arranged that pressure may be continuously applied at such a rate as to crush the half-briquette in one or two minutes."

For tests having for their object the comparison of materials with other materials, it is provisionally recommended to employ the cube, with faces of 50 square centimeters in area, placed upon one side. These tests will thus conform in a general way to the rules adopted for the tests of other materials."

In the United States it is common to employ 2-inch cubes for this purpose, although some laboratories use cubes of about the same area and somewhat greater height.

In making compressive tests of cement, any of the ordinary lever or hydraulic machines in common use, having a capacity of 40,000 to 50,000 lbs., is usually sufficient. It is desirable that the load be applied as uniformly as possible, as the result will be more or less affected by unsteadiness or shocks.

It has been proposed to employ punching tests instead of crushing the entire specimen. This method has been employed for a number of years in the laboratory at Paris, France. A punch five square centimeters in section (approximately 1/4 inch square) is employed, and it is claimed that the results are more regular than those obtained by crushing the entire specimen, while requiring less force in the testing-machine. The "Commission des Méthodes d'Essai des

the strength of mortar under transverse seldom employed as a measure of the quality of material, but are frequently made with a view to studying the action of the material in service.

Experiments have often been made to substitute the transverse test in the reception of material. Questions have usually been based upon the results of the test and of the apparatus with which it was carried out. All that is necessary, after the test is made, is the arrangement of a couple of knife-edges, upon which the ends of the bar may be rested, and a weight brought upon the top of the bar. The ordinary test by tension is, however, so simple, and there seems to be little if any advantage in making a change, although the transverse test is an equally effective means of determining the strength of material. Much less is known as to what the transverse test would be, and its use in specifications would be preceded by experiments to obtain proper values for the loads to be required, while the errors due to variations in making briquettes would exist the same in this case as in the other.

Land-Claye made a large number of tests to determine the tensile and transverse strength for both neat and mortars in small test-pieces. He used test-pieces 5 centimeters square and 12 centimeters long, and compared the results with the ordinary 5-square-centimeter sec-

of section), were found to average a little less than the unit stress for tension. The use of this method in this instance is of course inexact, as it assumes that the material has the same coefficient of elasticity for tension and compression, and to be strained only to the elastic limit. As all the specimens are of the same size, however, the results are material for purposes of comparison.

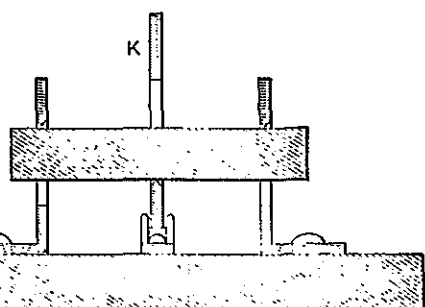


FIG. 24.

In the transverse test the most common method is to provide supports for the ends of the bar and to apply the weights directly upon its middle. Care should be taken to guard against the crushing of the material at the knife-edges; a good plan is to use small plates between the knife-edge and the surface of the specimen to distribute the load.

When a tension-machine is in use, a transverse attachment is usually added, by which both tests may be made with the same machine. Fig. 24 shows such an attachment

small specimens for transverse tests it is difficult to handle the test pieces without and, in general, if fairly accurate results the tensile test is more easily handled.

FACTORS AFFECTING STRENGTH TESTS.

pointed out small differences in the manipulations and surroundings of the material during the test, and an important influence upon the results of the strength of cement.

—The effects of variations in temperature on different cements. In general, mixing at a high temperature of air and materials results in a greater strength being obtained by mixing at a high temperature, the effect being greater for quick-setting materials. It is recommended to prescribe a temperature between 65° and 75° for standard tests. Lowering this temperature will sometimes increase the strength on some cements 20%, while increasing the temperature may correspondingly diminish the strength. For rather quick-acting materials, mixing with water at a high temperature will practically ruin the mortar.

On the other hand, within the limits of ordinary air temperatures, briquettes kept at high temperatures during the period of hardening usually show greater strength than those kept at low temperatures. There is,

consistency. The quantity of water to be used in making briquettes is determined for standard tests by finding the quantity necessary to give normal consistency, as described in Art. 40. Variations in the quantity of water may very materially affect the strength upon short-time tests. As a rule the use of a comparatively dry mixture, provided the paste be thoroughly mixed and well compacted in the moulds, gives higher results in short-time strength tests than if a wet mixture be employed. This difference may largely disappear in tests made after longer periods of time. With some quick-setting materials the quantity of water given by the normal consistency test is abnormally large, and changes materially the action of the cement from what it would be with less water. In one instance a cement mixed with about 25% water gives a rather dry paste, setting in ten or twelve minutes, and giving fairly good strengths at one and seven days. For normal consistency, this cement requires over 40% of water, and mixed with this quantity, sets in about six or seven hours, and has no strength at one day and very little in seven days. After six months both samples show good strength. Where such materials are to be used some modification of the method is desirable.

Moisture.—Cement briquettes kept damp during setting and the early period of hardening show much greater strength than those kept in dry air. It is usual to place the briquettes in a damp-closet for the first 24 hours

the first period. This requires considerable care to get good results, as unequal or premature drying of the cloths may materially affect the results of

of variations in the moisture conditions are to be avoided for all cements, some natural cements acting differently from the usual rule, and not requiring a special sphere for the development of early strength. When long time tests are made the greatest strength is developed by taking the briquettes from the moulds keeping dry during the later period.

of Water of Immersion.—The nature of the water in which briquettes are kept has been found to have no effect on their strength. A difference of 40% has been obtained between briquettes cured in water and in water which had stood in the open for a long period without change. The water should be frequently renewed when running water is available.

The presence of carbon dioxide in the water seems to be necessary for proper hardening of the mortar. In distilled water briquettes will disintegrate. Nearly any water which has been well aerated will give satisfactory results.

value of a cement as showing the possession of active elements. There are, however, different cements which act at different rates, and it is unwise to classify cements according to strength alone. The strength developed by cement in a test extending over a short period of time is not necessarily an indication of the strength that may be attained by it during a longer period, unless the normal action of the particular material be known. That which is strongest first may not continue to be the strongest.

The development of good strength soon after the setting of the mortar is a desirable attribute in most engineering work, and the probability of the material being satisfactory is greater where it shows a fair early strength, therefore it is usually wise to specify that the cement shall develop a fairly good strength on a short-time test, there is no object in requiring extremely high values.

Mr. Faija recommends that the gain in strength between the 7- and 28-day periods be considered rather than the absolute early strength in determining the probable subsequent gain in strength. This is doubtless a better guide than the usual one, but it is not usually practicable to require tests extending over a period of 28 days, and in many instances it would be misleading, if comparison of different cements were attempted.

Prof. Unwin gives a formula for the strength at any period, $y = a + b(x-1)^n$, in which y is the strength at x weeks after mixing, a the strength at end of one week,

s the value $n = 1/3$ for Portland cement in
t shows that the formula gives values well
with the results of tests in many instances.
However, accurate for general use, as is shown
e when applied to many long-time tests.
es to be required in specifications need to
l, especially with the natural cements, to
the particular kind of cement to be used,
th the practice of the laboratory.
rge quantities of cement are regularly em-
the same men continuously make the tests, .
paratively simple matter to conform the speci-
the work of the laboratory so as to get reliable
of the value of the material. A very large
the testing for reception of material must,
e done upon detached works, where temporary
are to be used and inspectors employed
ision. In these cases it is a difficult matter
specification which shall give good results,
operator can himself first be calibrated.
ults of tests in the permanent laboratories
e higher strength for the same material than
obtained on an ordinary outside test, espe-
a comparatively inexperienced man. It is
inferred, however, that the highest results
rily the outcome of the greatest skill. As
most expert and reliable operators get only
strength for the best material.

inferior material rejected on an ordinary test and it to one of the laboratories known to obtain unusually high strengths, and thus get results which to show error on the original test.

The American Society for Testing Materials has recommended the following as the range for minimum values of specifications for tensile strength of briquettes 1 square inch in section.

NATURAL CEMENT.

Neat Cement.	Strength.
Specimens in moist air.	50-100 lbs.
Specimens (1 day in moist air, 6 days in water)	100-200 "
Specimens (1 " " " " 27 " " ")	200-300 "
One Part Cement, Three Parts Standard Sand.	
Specimens (1 day in moist air, 6 days in water)	25-75 "
Specimens (1 " " " " 27 " " ")	75-150 "

PORTLAND CEMENT.

Neat Cement.	Strength.
Specimens in moist air.	150-200 lbs.
Specimens (1 day in moist air, 6 days in water)	450-550 "
Specimens (1 " " " " 27 " " ")	550-650 "
One Part Cement, Three Parts Sand.	
Specimens (1 day in moist air, 6 days in water)	150-200 "
Specimens (1 " " " " 27 " " ")	200-300 "

In specifications it is usually desirable to require showing a fair degree of strength rather than very low values. The latter are if anything less likely to indicate good material and unnecessarily limit competition.

CHAPTER VII.

TESTS FOR SOUNDNESS.

ART. 52. ORDINARY TESTS.

is the most important quality of a cement, the power of the cement to resist the disintegrations of the atmosphere or water in which it is used. Unsoundness in cement may vary in degree, and show itself quite differently in different materials. Cement in which the unsoundness is slight is apt to become distorted and cracked in shape, when small cakes are placed in water. When the disintegrating action is slower may be seen a visible change of form, but after weeks or months it fully lose coherence and soften until entirely

It is in common use for testing unsoundness to make small cakes or pats of neat cement, usually 1 1/2 inches in diameter and 1/2 inch thick, and place them in glass, and keep them in air or water, carefully watching them to see if they show signs of distortion or surface cracks, which indicate a tendency to disintegration.

Modern standard specifications require that the

they are fully set, and that they are not to be used for a period of 28 days, when, if no cracks or distortions appear, the cement is considered sound.

The cakes, especially those of slow-setting cement, must be protected against draughts and sunshine until final setting. This is best accomplished by keeping them in a covered box lined with zinc or under cloths. In this manner the formation of heat cracks is avoided, which are generally formed in the centre of the cake, and may be taken by an inexperienced person for cracks formed by blowing."

The French Commission upon Methods of Testing Materials recommend both a pat test and test of the amount of swelling which takes place in the mortar, as follows:

Cold Tests.—(a) For this test the cement paste is pressed into a pat about 10 centimeters in diameter and 2 centimeters thick, made thin at the edges.

Immediately after being made the specimens intended for tests in water are immersed in the same conditions as the briquettes used for tensile tests.

The specimens intended for use in the air are at once exposed to the conditions indicated for briquettes."

The condition of the specimens is observed at the same periods of time employed in making tensile tests, namely, 28 days, 3 months, 6 months, 1 year, etc.).

(b) To measure the increase in volume of the mortar made of neat cement after prolonged immersion in cold water, a bar of cement is employed 80 centimeters in length and

the mortar by a hammering upon the
of the bar of mortar." (See Fig. 25.)
of testing by measuring the variation in
ed to some extent in Germany. Methods
his test are described in Art. 53.
nt in testing soundness in this manner
ould be continued over as long a period
d many cases of unsoundness are not
a 28-day test. Instances have been
ch mortar in the form of 2-inch cubes
disintegrated within two years, where
ng was not observable for three months
test. The most common and dangerous
ndness are probably discovered by the
It may be observed, however, that the
gration of mortar is not oftener observed
tions is probably due more to the general
the cement supplied by the best makers,
uent stability of work regardless of the
ortar, than to the efficiency of the test for

of water to be used in mixing mortar
ndness is about the same as that used
ngth, although a variation in the quan-
ll limits does not seem to materially
results. Care must be taken that the
moist during setting and previous to
der that they may be free from drying
s account the French commission con-

gh apparently quite sound in water if first allowed
n air.

n mortar is to be used in sea-water, the pats of
are placed in water of the same character, and
rly as possible corresponding to the conditions
tice.

ically, however, the action of sea-water is so
at the test is comparatively useless. M. Alex-
found * that the first indication of disintegration
ot be shown for several months or perhaps years.
o found that the action in the laboratory did not
accord with that in the work. This was probably
failures occurring because of the method of em-
the mortar, when the cement was not defective.

are sometimes made of mortar to be used in
er by causing the water to filter through the
of mortar under pressure. This test is made
nce by employing the standard cubes used in
ssion, which are arranged and submitted to
n as in the test for permeability (see Art. 67).
blocks are afterward crushed, and their strengths
ed with those kept under normal conditions.

ART. 53. MEASUREMENT OF EXPANSION.

undness in cement is doubtless for the most
e to the presence of expansive elements, the
of which subsequent to the setting of the cement

Annales des Ponts et Chaussées, Sept. 1890, p. 131.

or when present in sufficient quantity, or by increase in volume without visible distortion in less quantity, or when more finely dividedly distributed through the mass.

The efficient and accurate method of determining the presence of expansives than is afforded by the use of thin pats of mortar, various appliances have been devised for the purpose of measuring directly the change of volume of a block of mortar.

Cement-bar Apparatus.—The first apparatus for measuring change of dimensions was devised by MM. Durand-Claye and Debray. It has been in use for a number of years in France, and was adopted for use in cold tests by the French Com-mission of Testing Materials (see Art. 52). The apparatus is shown in Fig. 25. The test is made with a bar 80 centimeters long and 12 millimeters square. The moulds in which these bars are formed are made on rods considerably longer than the bars to be tested, and of section 30 by 12 millimeters, laid flat and held apart at the ends by blocks of the same material as the cement bar, and prevented from spreading at the ends.

At the time of the test, the bar of cement is placed in a tube 80 centimeters long and 23 millimeters square, closed at the bottom and filled with the mortar, the action of which the mortar is to be exposed.

the cement bar is thus multiplied by 10

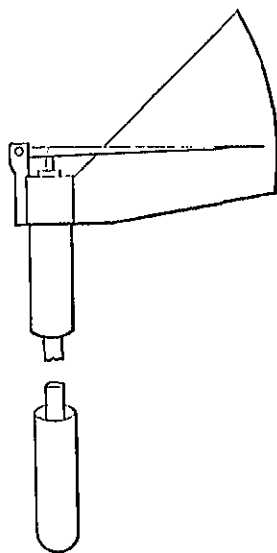


FIG. 25.

ing on the arc, which may be graduated, and
ve positions of the needle read from the scale,
e covered with blank paper, and have the posi-
needle-point marked and afterward measured.
d requires much care in manipulation, both
the bars and in handling them in the test.

ger's Caliper Apparatus. — This apparatus,
y Prof. Bauschinger and used in the German
laboratories, is an arrangement for measur-

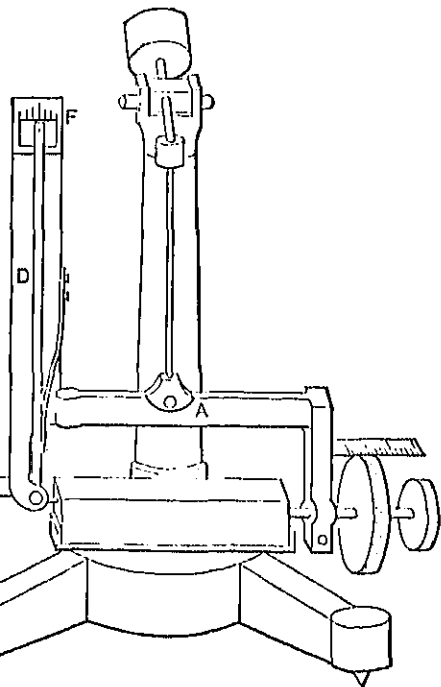


FIG. 26.

should be provided with square cavities in the ends in which are set small plates containing bearings for the points of the micrometer. The change in length may be measured by a micrometer.

The apparatus is suspended by a rod from

vertical bar at the bottom of which is hinged the needle. The lower end of the needle has a point which is pressed by a spring against the end of the specimen in making a measurement. The pressure of the micrometer against the specimen is regulated by bringing the point of the needle to zero on the scale *F*. A small bar of metal embedded in wood is used as a standard in calibrating the instrument, the length of the standard being known very accurately at a definite temperature.

Le Chatelier's Apparatus.—The apparatus of Prof. Le Chatelier is designed to measure the increase in circumference of a cylindrical block of mortar. This method is recommended by the French commission for use in making hot tests, and is said to have the advantage of being much more easily manipulated than the other methods. It has also been suggested that the increase in length for long bars may not be an accurate indication of the actual swelling, as there would be a tendency for the expansion to take lines of least resistance, and therefore the transverse swelling may be more than the longitudinal.

This apparatus is shown in Fig. 27. It is described by Prof. Le Chatelier as follows: * "A much more simple and yet sufficiently precise measurement of the expansion can be made by letting the cement harden in cylindrical moulds of a diameter equal to their height (for example

* Trans. Am. Inst. Mining Eng.

ent, not of the diameter, but of the circumference of the cylinder of cement. Very slow-setting cements, the water of which would evaporate or, if in air, it is indispensable to immerse as soon

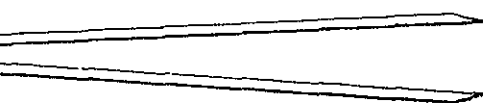


FIG. 27.

without waiting for them to set. The immersion of a porous mass filled with air may sometimes, on account of capillary phenomena, give rise to a swelling, and even to more or less disintegration. The setting may be insufficient. During the moulding, if the setting has taken place the mould should be held by means of a suitable holder, which is used during setting and before the measurements are

made. For objects of good quality, the distance between the needles does not attain 1 mm. in 28 days after the end of setting. This test for invariability, when made cold, has but little interest, and is only exceptionally bad products."

at many cases of unsoundness in cement
by the ordinary tests when extended over
of time has long been recognized, and
have been made to find some means of
with accuracy and within a reasonable
the material be reliable. The difficulty
material of so variable a nature, and in
may be due to so many and so diverse
evident. Each test must be directed to
tion of the presence of some particular
undness, and all of them seem, when in-
applied to all cements, to meet material
pass them, although of good quality, and
are evidently inapplicable.

of these tests are directed to the detec-
called expansives, and most of them attempt
the chemical action, which causes the swelling
tion, by the action of heat. Some of
have proven fairly successful in use, although
extensively employed as tests for the recep-
t.

were first suggested by Dr. Michaelis, who
use of heat to advance the hardening of
a view to determining, from the strength
short time in hot water, that which would
ger period under normal conditions. From
ments in this direction it appeared that the
d in from 1 to 7 days in hot water might
relation to those obtained in much longer

even showing a loss of strength in hot as in cold water.

Of tests made by M. Deval it was found that the presence of a small percentage of quicklime in Portland cement caused the cement to attain a greater strength when kept in hot than in cold water, and M. Deval proposed to utilize this discovery for the purpose of testing the presence of free lime. He suggested the use of briquettes of 1 to 3 mortar, and the comparison of the strength of briquettes conserved for 3 and 7 days at 100° C. with those kept for 7 and 28 days in ordinary temperatures; the cements of good quality showed a strength at least equal in hot to that in cold water.

It is observed in considering this test that there are some cements which give less strength in hot water than of normal quality. M. Alexandre found that cements rich in aluminates behave in this manner. On the other hand, certain cements which give high tests in hot water, notwithstanding the presence of appreciable quantities of free lime, are apparently silicious cements of low hydraulic index, in which the free lime does not cause it to become unsound during the short period of the test in hot water.

Several methods of testing the soundness of cements, with the aid of heat, which have come more and more into use, and have in many instances given satis-

ansion as in the corresponding cold tests. Descriptions of these tests are given in the following articles.

ART. 55. KILN TEST.

This test was originated by Dr. Bohmé, and consists in exposing small cakes of the cement to heat in a drying oven for a definite period, and observing whether it cracks.

The specifications of the Association of German Cement Makers recommend this test as a means of forming an opinion quickly, but make the ordinary 28-day test decisive as to those cements which fail to pass the kiln test. In these specifications the kiln test is described as follows:

For making the heat test, a stiff paste of neat cement and water is made, and from this cakes 8 cm. to 10 cm. in diameter and 1 cm. thick are formed on a smooth non-absorbent plate covered with blotting-paper. Two or three cakes, which are to be protected against drying, are placed over the test cakes to prevent drying cracks, and are placed after the test cakes have set, or at least only after they have set, with their smooth surfaces on a metal plate and are heated for at least one hour to a temperature of from 100° to 120° C., until no more water escapes. For the purpose the drying closets in use in chemical laboratories may be utilized. If after this treatment the cakes show no edge cracks, the cement is to be considered in conformity with the requirements of constant volume. If such cracks do appear, the cement is not to be condemned; but the results of the

more than 3 per cent of calcium sulphate
other sulphur combinations."

is considered by some authorities to be of
ments to be used in the air. It differs very
wever, from the way the material is used in
it effects the complete drying out of the
many instances also it is very difficult to
consequence of the loss of cohesive strength
g, where no distortions appear. The effect
rawal of the water necessary to the proper
the mortar may vary as the rapidity of action
ial varies.

test has sometimes been modified by using
osphere in place of dry air. A pan of water
the oven under the specimens; the evaporation
keep the air saturated with moisture. Prof.
used this method in a series of comparative
and it to give results similar to those of his
but somewhat less effective. His method
ws: "The specimens are placed on a support
on the bottom of which are several milli-
uter. The heat is gradually applied so as to
l the water in three to six hours,—first that
the bottom of the oven, then that which has
by the mortar. Until the water is entirely
the temperature remains at about 95° C. The
continued a half-hour after the disengagement
ceases, in such manner as to raise the tem-

to render the results comparable. It is not possible to make the duration of heat exactly the same for all the specimens, and after the evaporation of the water the heat at the bottom is much greater than at the top of the specimen."

Flame Test.—A dry-heat test has been proposed and sometimes made in Europe, by making a ball of the cement paste about two inches in diameter and placing it on a gauze in the flame of a gas-jet. The heat is gradually applied, so that at the end of an hour it reaches a temperature of about 90°C . The heat is then increased until the lower part of the ball becomes red-hot, after which it is cooled and examined for cracks. The results of this test are much like those of the dry-kiln test, and are usually difficult to interpret satisfactorily.

ART. 56. STEAM AND HOT-WATER TEST.

This test consists in subjecting cakes of cement, prepared in the ordinary manner, to the action of steam for three or four hours, then immersing in hot water for the remainder of twenty-four hours, and examining for cracks and distortions.

Mr. Faija, by whom this test was devised, uses it in his specifications for cement in England. He describes the method of conducting the test as follows:

Briefly, it is a vessel containing water, the water being maintained at an even temperature of about 110° to 120°Fahr .; there is a cover to the vessel, so that above

a rack in the upper part of the vessel, and upon the by warm vapor rising from the when the pat is set quite hard, it is taken off and put bodily into the water, which, as has been stated, is maintained at a temperature of 215° Fahr., and in the course of twenty-four hours is taken out and examined, and if found then hard and firmly attached to the glass, the test is at once pronounced sound and perfectly satisfactory; if, however, the pat has come off the glass in lumps or friability on the edges, or is much cracked on the under side, it may at once be decided that the cement in its present condition is not fit for use." Some experimenters prefer the temperature given above, but others experimenters have seemed to get better results at a lower temperature. Prof. Tetmajer obtained fairly good results with a temperature just below the boiling-point of water, 212° Fahr. He subjected the cakes to the test in steam for four hours, and hot water twenty-four hours, and then removed the cakes in the steam as soon as mixed. Prof. Tetmajer modified this method of testing, and adapted it to the specifications of the Department of Public Works, New York City. Four pats or cakes of cement in the usual manner were used by Mr. Maclay in the conduct of which he describes as follows:*

Transactions, American Society of Civil Engineers, vol. xxvii,

the steam-bath after double the interval has
it took the pats to set hard, counting from the
ging. The fourth pat is placed in the steam-
end of twenty-four hours.

st four pats are each kept in the steam-bath
s, then immersed in water of a temperature
00° Fahr. for twenty-one hours each, when
aken out and examined. To pass this test
ll four pats, after being twenty-one hours in
should upon examination show no swelling,
r distortions and should adhere to the glass
e latter requirement, while it obtains with
nts nearly free from uncombined lime, is not
on, the cracking, swelling, and distortion of the
much the more important features of this test.
-water tests, where the cement is very objec-
om excess of free lime, improper burning, or
es, the trouble generally shows itself in the
r distortion of all four pats. Where the cement
ad the cracking and swelling takes place in the
pats only, and when the cement is still less
ble only the first two pats crack or swell.
ing or swelling of No. 1 pat alone can generally
rded.

ery case of failure and rejection the cement
re been allowed to set hard in a normal tempera-
e subjecting it to a steam-bath."

ld be noted that the effect of exposing the

setting is greatly increased by the heat of the test may be augmented by placing at once; but where the rate of setting is the heat may cause the action of the expansion before the set, thus lessening the severity. In most cases the result of the test is the way, but it seems fairer to permit the cement submitting it to the test.

He, however, in his specifications does not results of the steam and hot-water test as cause of failure, but only considers it as cause of the cement failing to pass it, and adds it for the purpose of apparently giving the one more chance. This test consists in strength of briquettes conserved in hot water and comparing them with those kept cold.

Briquettes are prepared and treated as follows:—making the briquettes for the ordinary cold-water test, four additional sets of five each of neat cement, four additional sets of mortar, one part cement to two parts sand, are prepared, and allowed to cure one hour in moist air of about 60° Fahr., then placed for three hours in a steam-bath about 212° Fahr., then immersed in water maintained at 200° Fahr., in which they are broken when two, three, four, five days old respectively, and the breakings compared with the normal breakings of briquettes seven and ten days old kept in cold water."

old, and the hot-water seven-day breakings of cement are nearly as high as the normal seven-day breakings cold, where the cement is of good quality. Where the cement is poor, and the pitting and distortion, there is generally a corresponding falling off in the strength of the hot-water briquettes in the above comparison, and one system can be used as a check on the other."

Practically the same test mentioned in Art. 10 is proposed by M. Le Chatelier. Its use in this connection is commended by M. Candlot:

"Cements which contain free lime show less resistance to hot water than in cold. The cements of good quality show resistances equal to or greater than in cold. Cements properly proportioned and burned, but not completely burned, give, in this test, very low results."

It is pointed out, however, that the relative strengths of cements do not depend altogether upon the presence of free lime, and it is questionable if this method is as reliable as that it is designed to check. Some unsound cements certainly give high results in the measurements of the strength of briquettes conserved hot, while there is no authentic instance of any unsound cement passing the steam and hot-water test, although it may perhaps be condemned.

er of Zurich. It consists in placing the
tested in cold water, and then gradually
temperature of the water to boiling. Prof.
method is to place the pats in cold water im-
mer gauging, raise the temperature to boiling
hour, continue boiling for three hours, and
the pats for checking and softening.

od seems rather more severe in its effects
rtar than the other hot tests, although in
ing but little from the steam and hot-water
boiling temperature is employed in that
ion, however, seems to be more energetic,
is required to arrive at the same results.

esirable in using the boiling test to permit
o set before subjecting it to the test, as giv-
reliable indication of value. The results of
in most cases practically the same whether
as previously set or not. When cement is
the boiling test before setting takes place it
to exercise much care in the manipulation
avoid any disturbance of the mortar through
of the water when heated. The results of
depend somewhat upon the rate of setting
al, and upon the influence of heat upon the
g. With quick-setting cements this action
nt, but with those very slow the heat may
on of the expansives to take place in advance
ng, or the cement may remain soft until late

This method is to roll a ball of the mortar, and then to roll the ball to the required thickness. The condition of the mortar is determined by the requirement that it shall not crack in flattening or run at the edges. In boiling water this seems desirable, but for tests used in the ordinary cold tests the thin edges are a disadvantage in expediting the results where unsoundness is in the mortar.

The boiling test is frequently used in connection with the cold test for measuring expansion, in place of observations for distortions or cracks. The Bauschinger caliper is sometimes employed in this way, the bars being subjected to the boiling test, and the increase in length measured. The Le Chatelier apparatus (Fig. 27) is also frequently employed in this manner. The French Commission upon methods of testing materials recommends the use of the Le Chatelier apparatus for this purpose in addition to the cold test given in Art. 52, as

Tests.—For these tests cylindrical test-pieces are prepared, 3 centimeters in diameter and 3 centimeters high, made in metal moulds $1/2$ millimeter thick, having a spherical generatrix, and carrying, one on each side of the generatrix, two needles, 15 centimeters long. The increase in distance between the ends of the needles gives a measure of the swelling.

The moulds as soon as they are filled are immersed in boiling water. After an interval of not more than

... for six hours, and then it is allowed
making the final measurements.”
... of testing is not applicable to quick-
...
... test for deformation is to be made
... of standard consistency.”
Standard specifications adopted in 1904
... test for Portland cement, conducted in the
... as prescribed by the French specification
(See Appendix.)
... test is more simple than the steam and
... and requires very little in the way of
... may readily be made anywhere without

ART. 58. PRESSURE TEST.

... has devised a high-pressure steam test
In this test the pats are allowed to
... days, and are then exposed to steam
... at a pressure of from 3 to 20 atmospheres.
... has used this test for a number of years,
... it gives very satisfactory results, and that
... carried out it enables a complete and rapid
... formed on a cement containing magnesia.*
... accelerated tests, there has been much
... the reliability of this one, some authorities
... many of the best Portland cements fail

... Society of Chemical Industry, vol. XII, p. 927.

test is executed both upon the neat cement and mortar, the severity of the test being greater upon the cements. Dr. Erdmenger claims that the best cements show no defect under this test at high pressures (at pressures of 100 atmospheres); that others may show defects at lower pressures, although safe in practice (especially in the steam test), but they are not first quality; while cement which cannot stand the pressure test of about twelve atmospheres in the sand tests should be rejected as faulty.

ART. 59. AMERICAN STANDARD TESTS.

American Specifications commonly impose only the steam test for soundness, although in a number of cases the steam and hot-water test (Art. 56) is employed. In a few specifications the boiling test (Art. 57) is used. In a few specifications the boiling test (Art. 57) with thin edged pats, is used.

The Canadian Society of Civil Engineers, in 1903, recommended the following:

Blowing test.—Mortar pats of neat cement thoroughly worked are troweled upon carefully cleaned 5-inch square ground-glass plates. The pats shall be about 1/2 inch thick in the centre and worked off to sharp edges at the four sides. They shall be covered with a cloth and allowed to remain in the air until set, after which they shall be placed in vapor in a tank in which the water is heated to a temperature of 130° F. and remaining in the vapor six hours, including the time

samples shall break with a sharp, crisp ring.
Committee of the American Society of Civil Engineers recommended the following:

Test.—The object is to develop those qualities which destroy the strength and durability of a material. It is highly essential to determine such properties, tests of this character are for the most part made in a very short time, and are known, therefore, as rapid tests. Failure is revealed by cracking, crumbling, or disintegration, or all of these phenomena. A specimen which remains perfectly sound is said to pass the test.

—Tests for constancy of volume are divided into two classes: (1) normal tests, or those made in either water or air maintained at about 21° C. (70° F.), and (2) elevated temperature tests, or those made in air, steam, or water at a temperature of 45° C. (115° F.) and upward. Specimens should be allowed to remain twenty-four hours in air before immersion in water or steam, and twenty hours in air.

Test.—The tests, pats, about 7½ cm. (2.95 inches) in diameter and 1 cm. (0.49 inch) thick at the centre, and tapered at the edges, should be made, upon a clean glass plate, of a size of 10 cm. (3.94 inches) square, from cement mortar of normal consistency.

Test.—A pat is immersed in water maintained at 21° C. (70° F.) as possible for twenty-eight days,

temperature and observed at intervals.
Accelerated test.—The pat is exposed in any convenient atmosphere of steam, above boiling water, in a closed vessel, for three hours.

If these tests satisfactorily, the pats should be strong and hard, and show no signs of cracking, or disintegration.

If the pat leave the plate, distortion may be tested with a straight-edge applied to the surface while in contact with the plate.

In the present state of our knowledge it cannot be said that cement should necessarily be condemned simply because it fails to pass the accelerated tests, nor can a cement be considered entirely satisfactory simply because it passes these tests.

D. VALUE OF THE ACCELERATED TESTS.

The reliability of the various accelerated tests for determining the soundness of cement in use is a matter on which there is much dispute amongst authorities on the subject. These tests have not as yet come into general use, and considerable opposition has been offered to them, although in certain instances they have been used.

The question of adopting the accelerated tests was discussed by the Association of German Cement Manufacturers in 1891, and it was voted to adhere to the tests already existing. It was also stated in

not be used by the consumer, with a view to sound opinion on the constancy of volume. Its of a number of experiments are also given discussion, showing that a number of cements not withstood the *kiln* test were sound when water at normal temperatures, or if placed being kept moist for several days. It may also that most of the discussion seemed to y to the dry-heat test.

the leading German cement experts, however, advocates of the use of heat tests. Dr. Michaelis his approval of them, and stated that he had ed with and used them satisfactorily for a years at the Charlottenburg experiment r. Erdmenger also declares that experience the high-pressure-steam test to give an accurate on of the permanence of volume of the material. that most of the best German cements have test up to a pressure of forty atmospheres for rs and several for neat cement, the best of them o defect whatever; and he thinks there is no the statement that many good cements will e test.

auschinger found that cements which had results in the ordinary 28-day test, and also cold-pat test for a year, failed when formed of 1 to 3 mortar for testing in the Bauschinger aratus. Expansion was detected in six months

(continuance of the present practice for quick determinations and the 28-day test is decisive), but they state that "the boiling test may be considered as the most convenient test for the determination of constancy of Portland cement, of slag cement, and of other cements." They refer a particular test to the sub-committee for consideration and report.

Commission upon Methods of Testing† the use of the boiling test as the best method for a quick determination of the permanence of Portland cement, the amount of the increase to be measured directly, instead of simply the effect upon a small pat.

the steam and hot-water test has been used by Mr. Faija, using a low temperature; in the United States the same test is employed by the Engineers of the New York Department of Public Works at a temperature near boiling. In some instances it has also been used in the United States by the Engineers in the study of their product with very

possibility of adopting some form of accelerated

of the Conventions held at Munich, Dresden, and Vienna, for the purpose of adopting uniform methods of testing materials, by J. Bauschinger; translated by O. M. Gieseler (Washington, 1896).
des Méthodes d'Essai des Matériaux de Construction, Paris, 1894 and 1895).

g the matter, the results of which differ each other as to involve the question in . Most of these experiments have been ing the action of heat upon the various which unsoundness is usually attributed, om the results whether the hot test gives ication of the presence of these ingredients

The most common method has been to antity of quicklime with a good Portland en observe the action of the test upon the involves the assumption that certain ree lime are sufficient to render the cement results of tests made in this manner are o much variation, due to the nature of a rapidity of action, and the quantity of n may have been originally present in it. ements have been of much value in show- of the accelerated tests upon various sub- discovering the reasons for many of the ractory results with them. The question adoption of tests of this character must, etermined by a comparison of the results ir use upon the material as found in market n of the same material in practical use. periments are desirable which shall system- re the results of accelerated test upon ts with the results of tests under normal

ates at the laboratory of the College of Civil Engineering
Cornell University.

A careful study of the available results of experiment
seems to justify the following statements:

1. Small percentages of uncombined lime or magnesia
in the cement are commonly detected by the use of the
heat tests, and the same ingredients in sufficient quantity
render the cement unsound in ordinary use.

2. Cement liable to change of volume when employed
under normal conditions is almost invariably detected
when submitted to the hot-water test. There seems to
be no well-authenticated instance of failure to condemn
grossly defective material.

3. Nearly, if not quite, all of the best brands of Port-
land cement, and many of natural cement, as found in
market, readily meet the requirements of these tests,
which therefore do not impose so severe limitations
upon the choice of cement as is commonly supposed.
With natural cement the results of these tests vary some-
what with the character of the cement, and the same
tests do not seem to be universally applicable. This,
however, is a matter which can only be determined by
careful experiment upon each of the various classes of
natural cement. Many of them bear the severe tests
equally as well as the Portland.

* Methoden und Resultate der Prüfung hydraulischen Binde-
mittel (Zurich, 1893).

normal temperatures in fresh water. These
the most part seem to fail if kept in dry air
ted to the action of sea-water. Apparently,
unsoundness may exist which is sufficient
change of volume to take place in a short
water or in a longer time in dry air, while in
the action of the expansives takes place
ry to the mortar. This is shown by the fact
mortar which had failed in the boiling test
of mixing, after being kept several months
and then subjected to the boiling test,
to stand the test perfectly, showing that the
expansives must meanwhile have taken
several instances pats of cement acting in this
found to blow in dry air.

unsoundness of cement condemned by the heat
the mortar is to be kept submerged in fresh
therefore, in many instances at least, question-
the large series of tests made by Prof. Tet-
of 139 samples of Portland cement 17 failed
g test, all of which also failed in a long time
while only 2 were defective in long time in
water. In the tests made by the author, the
of failures to total number of samples is less
th, 5 in 53, and 3 of the 5 samples which were
the hot test were later disintegrated when
fresh water.

ness of the cement has an important bear-

material be sifted out, and only the coarse part employed in the test, the slower action in the larger may cause distortion and cracking to take together the same difference usually follows in has not been satisfactorily determined.

and cement which contains free lime in sufficiency to cause it to swell in the hot test may be made to pass that test by adding a small of sulphate of lime. The action of this salt setting of cement has already been discussed

The rules of the Association of German makers permit the addition of a small proportion of lime for the purpose of regulating the setting, and conclude that no injury is thereby to the cement.

of the sulphate of lime to correct the expansion of free lime is but imperfectly known. The causes cement containing free lime to pass is well known, but whether the corrective tends to the action of the expansives when the used under normal conditions has not as satisfactorily determined.

strongest objection that has been urged against hot tests is that they fail to detect free lime presence of the calcium sulphate. The justice of the objection can only be decided by experiments over considerable periods of time to determine whether the material so passed is sound under

experimental stage, and further experiment is to determine more fully the connection between results of tests and the action of the cement

Under present conditions it may be said that the opinion is fairly against the soundness of a cement which fails to pass the hot-water test and in favor of that which succeeds in passing it; but variations in the results in the conditions under which it is employed are so great that the results, and they cannot be relied upon with any certainty for all material. Upon ordinary work in fresh water there is probably no consideration of unsoundness in the use of any good brand of cement, although failure sometimes occurs; but for important works, and particularly those to be exposed to the action of sea-water, it is reasonable to require tests as are likely to insure good material, and to run the risk of excluding other good material.

ART. 61. AIR-SLAKING.

When fresh cement, when first opened after being in storage, is found to slake, or, if tested at once, show an abnormally rapid setting, and subsequently harden very slowly, and short-time tests very low tensile strength may be obtained. If, however, this cement be exposed to the air for some days, it may resume its natural rate of setting,

erty of air-slaking in testing cement is
y some engineers, upon the ground that
be used in the work will not be treated in
anner. In England it is customary to give
e to all cement to be used upon important
east ten days, but in the United States the
commonly used just as received from the

ul practice seems to favor air-slaking in
probably a cement capable of regaining
ondition in a few days' exposure will not
work, even if used at once, but it would
better in using such cement to air-slake
fore using. It may be remarked, however,
ing does not ordinarily seem necessary.
commonly placed upon the market by the
does not need it. While it may be allowable
aterial the benefit of the operation, probably
of rejection would occur on account of its

nstances the effect of air-slaking a cement
disappears with time; that is, the strength
r after three or six months may be as great
d before as for that mixed after air-slaking,
difference of strength on a test extending
ays is very considerable. This would indi-
ssity of air-slaking the whole of the material
gth is to be developed in the work, although

at a degree of unsoundness likely to be
though this also disappears in the second

on is simply as to the quantity of the ex-
th may be present without danger to the
n it is used.

CHAPTER VIII.

SPECIAL TESTS.

ART. 62. TESTS OF ADHESIVE STRENGTH.

THE ability of cement mortar to firmly adhere to a surface with which it may be placed in contact is one of its most valuable properties and quite as important as the development of cohesive strength. Tests for adhesive strength are not commonly employed as a measure of the quality of the material, because of the uncertain character of the test and the difficulty of so conducting it as to make it a reliable indication of value. The adhesive properties of the cement are to a certain extent neglected in play in the tensile tests of sand mortar, and may be inferred from a comparison of neat and sand tests. Adhesive strength is developed more slowly than that of cohesion. The difference between the two, which is usually considerable during the early period of hardening, is gradually lessened with time. This is illustrated in the greater time required for sand mortar than for neat cement to harden.

Experiments upon the adhesion of mortars to various substances are sometimes made, both for the purpose of comparing various cements or methods of use, and to study the relative effects of various kinds of surfaces.

tar of the ordinary form for tensile specimens. The other half a block of stone, glass, or other material may be used, of the same section as the mould, and arranged to be held by a special clip of the testing-machine at the other.

In France, Germany, and Switzerland the apparatus shown in Fig. 28 is employed. The testpiece is shown at *a*;

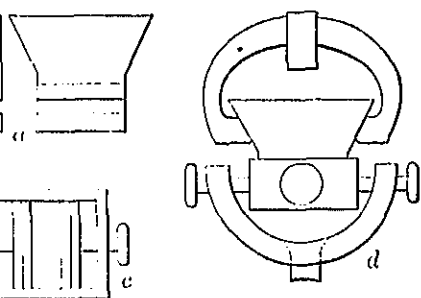


FIG. 28.

section of 10 square centimeters—twice that of a standard tensile specimen. The mortar end is formed in a wedge shape to catch the upper clip of the testing-machine, while the other end is formed of a block of marble or ground glass for standard use. A cylindrical groove cut in its side, which holds the special clamp (shown at *c*). This clamp is used, in the lower clip of the testing-machine, to hold the specimen at *d*. For forming the briquettes moulds

standard tests in comparing different materials; amount of labor involved in the preparation of blocks, and the difficulty of getting always the same, has been a bar to the extension of this method. Ground glass has been more commonly employed than the same blocks being repeatedly used. Dr. C. also used for this purpose standard blocks of mortar, of the same form, which are easily obtained and more uniform in material and surface.

The International Conference on Methods of Testing, held in London, did not define a standard test, but referred the matter to a sub-committee, with the recommendation that the German apparatus just described

should be used. The commission recommend the use of a double T form, suggested by M. Candlot. See Fig. 29. A mould is employed, made to form half the briquette, which is set down over the other half to be used in forming the specimen.

The recommendations of the commission are as follows: To compare the adhesive strengths of cements, subjected to the tension test a briquette of the form shown above, each of the materials to constitute half of one of the specimens.

Standard tests, intended to compare the adhesive strengths of various cements to the same material.

Standard adhesion-blocks are prepared of concrete composed of one part, by weight, of artificial cement, passed through the sieve of 900 meshes

block. The adhesion-blocks are immersed in water after twenty-four hours, and kept thus until

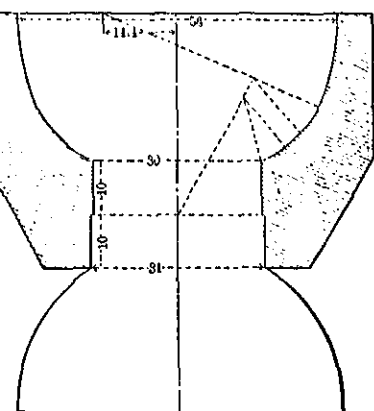


FIG. 29.

cast for twenty-eight days. When they are dried, they are dried and the surface is smoothed with paper.

standard plastic mortar (see Art. 44) is used for these tests, introduced by the pressure of the hand into the moulds, placed in such manner that the standard adhesion-block forms the base. The block is removed from the mould when completely set.

The briquettes are tested in the same manner as the blocks, at the same periods prescribed for tensile tests."

... can be moulded, the block may be made
... as the standard block. If the material
... several millimeters thick may be formed
... dressed. This is placed in the bottom
... and the block filled out with neat cement."

ART. 63. CHEMICAL ANALYSIS.

... analysis is of very great value in the study
... of various cements, and is commonly
... manufacturers in regulating the quality of
... s. It is not commonly used for the purpose
... ng the quality of a cement, and is not of
... as a test for the reception of material.

... ty of the cement depends not only upon
... ts being properly proportioned, but also
... e of combination of the ingredients, and this
... nds upon the manipulation given the mate-
... facture. Analysis shows the proportions of
... ingredients, but does not show their state of
... . The results of an analysis may show
... position is such that a good cement may be
... the ingredients, but other tests are necessary
... ether it has been made. Chemical analysis
... er, prove a cement to be bad through its
... objectionable proportions of ingredients known

cannot be detected by analysis, as their presence is necessarily dependent upon the proportion of lime or magnesia present.

Specifications, devised by M. Guillaumin, generally reject those containing more than 1% of free acid, or sulphides in appreciable quantity. Those containing more than 4% of oxide of iron give less than 44/100 for the ratio of the weights of silica and alumina to the weight of lime, are to be regarded with suspicion.

A high percentage of volatile elements in a cement indicates insufficient burning or deterioration with exposure to the air.

It is stated that a chemical analysis may be used to detect the adulteration of cement, sometimes with sugar. Upon sifting the cement and analyzing the coarse and fine portions an adulteration should show practically identical results in two analyses. He also states that blast-furnace gas is a common adulteration in Portland cement, which sometimes may be discovered by the odor of hydrogen upon treating it with hydrochloric acid.

The American Standard Specifications for Portland Cement, 1904 recommend the following as a recommended chemical composition: "There shall be not less than 70% of lime, that is to say, the proportion of lime shall be greater than is necessary to saturate silica

Cement of the American Society for Testing
in 1904 recommend the following require-
Portland cement: "The cement shall not con-
than 1.75 per cent of anhydrous sulphuric
, nor more than 4 per cent of magnesia

of Analysis.—The following method for the
of cement was recommended by committee on
in the Analysis of Materials for the Portland
Industry, of New York Section of the Society
Chemical Industry.*

*and suggested by Clifford Richardson, for the
of Limestone, Raw Mixture, and Portland
proposed for trial by the committee and modi-
accordance with the suggestions of W. F. Hille-*

on.—One half gramme of the finely powdered
is to be weighed out, and, if a limestone or
mixture, strongly ignited in a platinum crucible
blast for fifteen minutes. It is then trans-
an evaporating-dish, preferably of platinum,
like of celerity in evaporation, covered with a
ss and 10 cc. of HCl, diluted with about 50 cc.
added. Digestion on the water-bath is allowed
or about 15 minutes, when the substance should

Journal, Society for Chemical Industry, Jan. 15, 1902.

st with 5-10 cc. of strong HCl , and then with water as the dish will comfortably hold. The is replaced and digestion allowed to go on for 24 hours on the bath, after which the solution is filtered and the separated silica washed thoroughly with water. The filtrate is again evaporated to dryness, the residue, without further heating, taken up with water and the small amount of silica is separated on another filter-paper. The papers and the residue are transferred wet to a weighed crucible, dried, ignited, first over a Bunsen burner, then in a desiccator, until the carbon of the filter is completely consumed, and then in the blast for 30 minutes and checked by weighing in the desiccator for 10 minutes or to constant weight. If great accuracy is desired, the residue is treated in the desiccator with about 10 cc. of HF and four drops of water, then evaporated over a low flame to complete dryness. The small residue is washed, finally blasted, and weighed. The difference between this weight and the weight previously obtained gives the weight of silica.†

and Fe_2O_3 .—The filtrate about 250 cc., from the double evaporation for SiO_2 , is made alkaline with

ammonia. If the residue remains undecomposed it should be separated, washed with a little Na_2CO_3 dissolved, and added to the original

residue. For ordinary control work in the plant laboratory this correction is perhaps neglected; the double evaporation never.

by decantation and slightly on the filter. Setting the filtrate, the precipitate is dissolved in hot dilute solution passing into the beaker in which the titration was made. The aluminium and iron are reprecipitated by NH_4OH . The second precipitate is collected and washed on the same filter used in the first. The filter-paper, with the precipitate, is then placed in a weighed platinum crucible, the paper burned and the precipitate ignited and finally blasted to redness, with care to prevent reduction, cooled and weighed as Al_2O_3 and Fe_2O_3 .*

Fe_2O_3 .—The combined iron and aluminium oxides are placed in a platinum crucible at a very low temperature and about 10 grammes of KHSO_4 , the melt taken up with water and 25 cc. of dilute H_2SO_4 . The clear solution is then digested on the steam bath for about 15 minutes, and, if accuracy is desired, the small amount of silica is filtered out, weighed, and corrected by H_2F and H_2SO_4 . The filtrate is reduced by hydrogen sulphide, boiling out the excess afterwards whilst passing through the flask, and titrated with permanganate.†
 TiO_2 .—To the combined filtrate from the Al_2O_3 and Fe_2O_3 precipitate a few drops of $\text{H}_2\text{N}_4\text{OH}$ are added and the solution brought to boiling. To the boiling solution a few drops of a saturated solution of ammonium oxalate are

This precipitate contains TiO_2 , P_2O_5 , MnO .

In this way only is the influence of titanium to be avoided, a correct result obtained for iron.

placed wet in a platinum crucible, and the paper
over a small flame of a Bunsen burner. It is
red, redissolved in HCl , and the solution made
out 100 cc. with water. Ammonia is added in
excess and the liquid is boiled. The small amount
which is separated is filtered out, weighed, and
not added to that found in the first determination,
at accuracy is desired. The lime is then repre-
sented by ammonium oxalate, allowed to stand until
washed, weighed * as oxide by ignition and blast-
furnace weight, or determined with standard per-
manganate.†

—The combined filtrates from the calcium pre-
paration are acidified with HCl , and concentrated on the
water-bath to about 150 cc., 30 cc. of $\text{Na}(\text{NH}_4)\text{HPO}_4$
solution is added, and the solution transferred to a beaker and
boiled for several minutes. It is then removed from
the heat and cooled by placing the beaker in ice-water.
Then, NH_4OH is added drop by drop, with con-
stirring until the crystalline ammonium-magnesium
phosphate begins to form, and then in slight excess,
boiling being continued for several minutes. It is then
allowed to stand for several hours in a cool atmosphere and
filtered. The precipitate is redissolved in hot dilute

Volume of wash-water should not be too large.
Accuracy of this method admits of criticism, but its con-
venience and rapidity demand its insertion.

ved to stand for about two hours, when it is filtered
paper or a Gooch crucible, cooled and weighed as
 P_2O_5 .

K_2O and Na_2O .—For the determination of the alkalis
the well-known method of Prof. J. Lawrence Smith
be followed, either with or without the addition of
 CO_2 with the NH_4Cl .

SO_3 .—One gramme of the cement is dissolved in
cc. of HCl , filtered and the residue washed thoroughly.*
The solution is made up to 250 cc. in a beaker and
d. To the boiling solution 10 cc. of a saturated
tion of $BaCl_2$ are added slowly drop by drop from a
tte and the boiling continued until the precipitate is
formed. It is then set aside over night, filtered,
ed and weighed as $BaSO_4$.

Total Sulphur.—One gramme of material is weighed
in a large platinum crucible and fused with Na_2CO_3
a little KNO_3 , being careful to avoid contamination
n sulphur in the gases from the source of heat. The
t is treated in the crucible with boiling water and the
id poured into a tall, narrow beaker and more hot
er added until the mass is all dissolved. The solu-
is then filtered. The filtrate contained in a No. 4
ker is to be acidulated with HCl and made up to
ut 250 cc. with distilled water, boiled, the sulphur
cipitated as $BaSO_4$ and allowed to stand over night.

* Evaporation to dryness is unnecessary.

city. Attempts have also been made to
the character of the cement by studying the
ch the powder is composed under the micro-
Portland cement, it has been observed that
rtion of the cement is composed of grains
rm and metallic lustre, and that the parts
pearance are probably inert. It has also
that the color of the grains seems to bear
n to their value in the cement. Further
veal more positive indications of value based
roscopic appearance, but it seems unlikely
hod will be applied to the determination of
tice.

f homogeneity, the employment of an ordi-
ing-glass may perhaps give useful results.
o made a study of the matter and presented
the French Commission upon Methods of
aterials, recommends that the material to be
sifted through the sieve of 4900 meshes
entimeter and the portion retained by that
d in the examination, on account of the
observing the grains when mixed with the
powder. It is also suggested that two
sed: the first of a powder of about three
examine the general appearance and uni-
e material; the second of about eight diam-
y in detail the various grains. The material
on a black surface to be examined. The

...and that the character of the material in the
articles is not necessarily the same as in the
ions, or at least the proportions of the various
its may not be the same.

...ret found that pure cement, thoroughly well
gave "grains all of the same appearance, black,
angular, hard, and with a rough fracture.
With a drop of water they show at first no change
after several minutes a sort of halo appears, pro-
ducing the beginning of crystallization of the soluble
salts. These grains color immediately in hydro-
chloric acid to a yellow, but are completely dissolved
in acetic acid.

Less burned gives grains equally opaque, but
less deep, varying to brown, gray, or green.
Overburned rock gives gray or yellow grains,
which crush easily under the point of a knife, and are
decolorized by acids with the disengagement of carbonic
acid.

When instead of material prepared in the labora-
tory, a thoroughly homogeneous, the residue obtained
from market grades of cement is used, the appearance
is different even if the material be of best quality.
The color is less deep and the material appears very
heterogeneous. Such cements contain always, with many
black, brown, or green grains, a large number
of vitreous material, green, yellow, and white, with-
out containing foreign matter."

bright colors, blue, green, violet, red, and
e materials are usually soft and porous."

in black and brilliant grains, with con-
ecture, is found in all the specimens, and
n."

bris of flint from the millstones is not easily
ed from certain underburned cement grains;
he gray morsels, hard and opaque. They
the cement grains in not being attacked by
ids."

appearance of grains of slag vary according
ure of the slag. Commonly, the grains are
of a bluish-gray color, and smooth, clean
Sometimes the grains are vitreous and black.
lar slags employed in making slag cements
and leave few grains. Their débris has the
of colorless glass, or tint of yellow or green,
res easily under the point of a knife."

ers give round grains, usually more clear in
the grains of cement."

n added to cement clinker before grinding may
e white crystalline grains easily seen. They
entified by their hardness and solubility. Plas-
cult to recognize, because it grinds fine and
rystals."

laster has been added to cement, it may some-
detected by separate analyses of the fine and

the mixture of methylene iodide and benzene, slightly below that of cement and above that separating by its means the cement from tion. It is thus described by Prof. Le

operation is the preparation of a liquid of ty for the separation,—2.95 for example. l the cement sinks to the bottom and the the surface. To prepare the liquid add to e iodide of density 3.1 a small quantity of opping the moment a crystal of aragonite of just remains at the surface. It is well not mixture directly, but to make two mixtures— le lighter, the other a little heavier, than sought; thus obtaining a more progressive d more easily regulated."

aratus consists of a glass tube (Fig. 30) s in diameter, 70 millimeters high, widened at top and terminated at bottom in a point, ice, 1 millimeter in diameter. This orifice the interior a little above the bottom, by a stopper, fastened to a long glass rod, which he top of the tube.

e an experiment, the stopper is wet with e is dissolved by the liquid), to prevent vo grammes of cement are introduced, then centimeters of liquid (density 2.95). It is d in a lively manner with a small platinum

at the bottom and the slag at the top. The

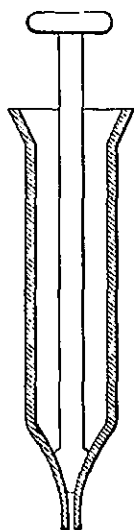


FIG. 30.

emery is lightly raised by the rod to which
d, letting out the cement and part of the liquid,
n replaced. The cement is caught upon a
gh which the liquid passes into a flask, when
for another operation.

ag and remainder of the liquid are received
ner filter. Finally the tube and filters are
h benzine and dried; the cement and slag
l, and analyzed chemically if thought proper."

ART. 65. ABRASIVE TESTS.

be used for sidewalks, floors, or artificial
times submitted to tests for resistance to
is test is frequently employed in Ger-
pparatus designed by Prof. Bauschinger
This apparatus consists of a cast-iron
timeters in diameter and 3 centimeters
d to rotate horizontally at about 20 revolu-
ute. Specimens 6×6 , 10×10 , or 12×12
a section are employed. They are held
k with a pressure of 30 kilogrammes, and
f standard sand are added for each 10 turns.
given, and the loss in weight of the specimen

ws a similar apparatus made by the Richle
-machine Co., and used for brick and stone
on tests, when employed, are usually made
t cement and sand mortar. The test of
ed in practice is evidently the more impor-
nce to abrasion varies with the character of
d for sand mortar depends upon the adhe-
ment to the sand and the hardness of the
nd. Sand mortars with moderate propor-
give better resistance to abrasion than neat

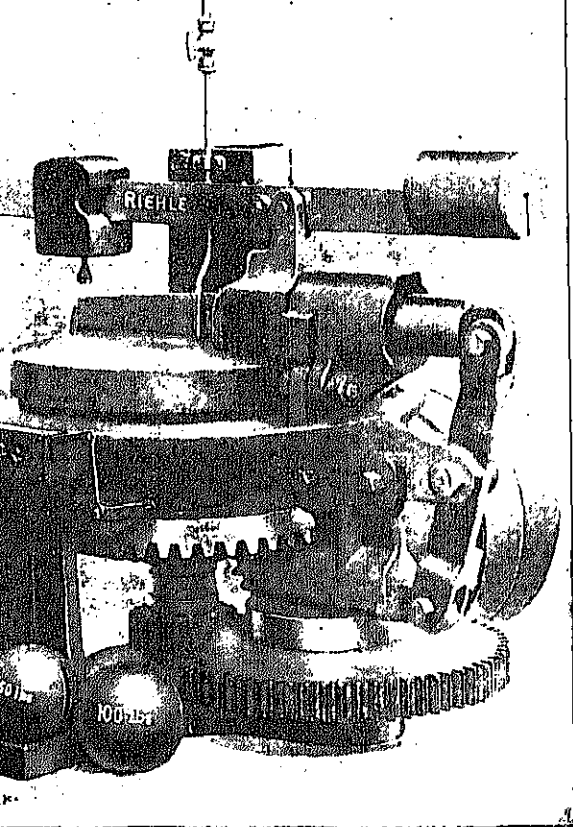


FIG. 31.

properties of the materials and methods employed. The porosity may often be a matter as affecting the durability of mortar as the action of disintegrating agencies. These are employed for the reception of material. It depends to a much greater extent upon the water used in gauging, and the degree of care used in forming the briquette, than upon the quality of the cement or sand employed, although the fineness of these materials has some in-

fluence. Porosity consists in determining the ratio of voids to the total volume of the mortar. It is a matter of determining when the voids are completely filled with liquid, or when the mortar is quite solid. It is a somewhat uncertain one, and a definite procedure be followed in order to obtain concordant and comparable results.

The method usually followed is to measure the total weight and the volume of material: the volume is determined from the difference of the two; this divided by the weight is the percentage of porosity. To determine the total apparent volume, the simplest method is to use a block of such form that it may be directly weighed. When this method is not employed the total volume is obtained by weighing the block in a saturated liquid in water and in the air; the difference of the two weights is the weight of water displaced,

change during the weighing.

tain the volume of solid material in the block, difference between the weight of the block when in air, and of the saturated block in water is obtained.

This difference is the weight of water displaced by the solid material. To secure good results the entire block must be in the first instance and the complete saturation in the second is essential. The block may be placed in dry air for a period sufficient to permit the weight to become constant. For this purpose it is necessary that the temperature be the same in all cases, as the amount of hygroscopic water given off depends upon the temperature of drying; 100° to 110° Fahr. has been commonly employed, and is recommended by the French Commission on Standard Tests. After the dry weight has been obtained, considerable difficulty may be experienced in attaining complete saturation. If the block be simply immersed in water, air will be retained in the voids, and a long time will be required to obtain a constant weight. Boiling is sometimes resorted to, but has the disadvantage of causing change of volume in the mortar. The best method of expediting the test is to exhaust the air from the specimen in water under the receiver of a vacuum pump.

Tetmajer recommends* that a temperature of

Methoden und Resultate der Prüfung der Hydraulischen Bindemittel.
Zürich, 1893).

ed by measuring directly the volume of ed. For this purpose an apparatus is ch is very similar to the Schuman volu- (g. 5, but with a removable cover to the he specimen.

67. TESTS FOR PERMEABILITY.

ability of mortar is quite distinct from and the more porous is not necessarily the le. Tests for permeability, like those for interesting and important in the studies of of mortar, but are not suitable for use ns for the reception of material. The or permeability is made by forcing water ke of mortar under pressure. This may ed either by subjecting the mortar directly e of a considerable head of water, or by block of mortar to a small pressure from water above, while the air is exhausted, rtial vacuum below. The latter method ally preferred in Europe, although the n made standard in France.

us shown in *Fig. 32* has been frequently hese tests. It consists of a heavy cylin- (*a*) with a ground upper edge, upon which itted the second cylinder (*d*). The speci- ng a section of 20 square centimeters and

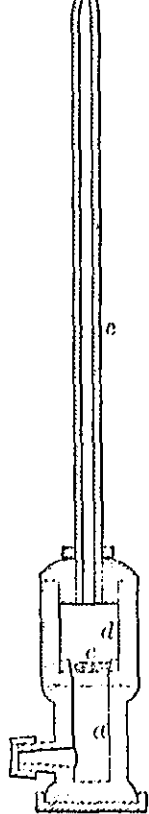


FIG. 32.

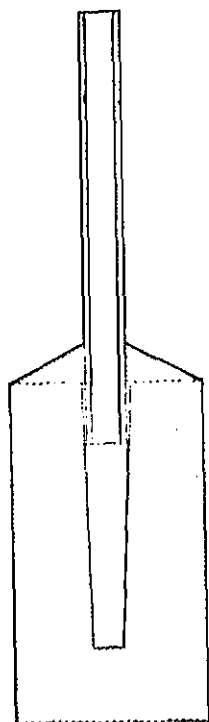


FIG. 33.

A ground-glass stopper covers the cylinder (*b*) carries the graduated tub (*c*), which has a capacity 10 cubic centimeters and is graduated to 1/2 centi-

cylinder and the cover clamped down, the
ed from *a*, the stop-cock closed, and the
be filled with water to the zero mark. The
water percolating through the specimen may
from the scale for any desired unit of time.
gement shown in Fig. 33 is also used to
in Europe. It consists of a hollow cylin-

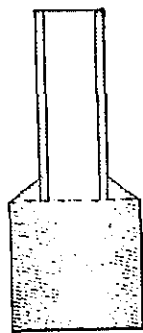


FIG. 34.

110 millimeters in diameter and 200 milli-
of the mortar to be tested, into the top
glass tube is set with neat cement. In making
rubber tube is connected with the glass tube
vessel placed at such an elevation as will
sure desired, which varies according to the
tested.

block, arranged as shown in Fig. 34, is
ly employed. For this purpose the stand-

measured by the number of liters of water which trans-
mits a cube with faces of 50 square centimeters during
a given time.

The water is supplied by a glass tube 35 millimeters
in diameter and 110 millimeters high, sealed vertically
with the aid of neat cement upon the upper face of the
block. The upper end of the tube is connected by a
rubber tube with a reservoir raised to an elevation cor-
responding to the head desired. The heads adopted,
according to the permeability of the mortar, are 0.10
meter, 1 meter, and 10 meters.

Before the test is made, the blocks should be im-
mersed for 48 hours, with such precautions as are neces-
sary to secure as complete saturation as possible. After
terminating the experiment the block is kept completely
immersed.

The rate of filtration is determined after 24 hours,
7 days, 28 days, 3 months.

The determinations are made for three blocks, the
average results being taken for the two blocks most con-
sistent.

The *standard test* for permeability is to be made upon
standard plastic mortar 28 days old, kept under water.

For tests upon mortars of different ages and com-
positions, it is recommended to employ 1 to 2 and 1
to 10 mortars made plastic, and 7 days, 28 days, and 3
months old."

The permeability of mortars to gases is a matter

frequently made upon cement mortars to the effect of freezing before setting or while still comparatively fresh, for the purpose of ascertaining the safety of using the mortar in freezing weather, or the best method of so using it.

These tests are usually made by exposing briquettes to various temperatures, either by taking advantage of the natural temperatures, or by using a freezing mixture. They consist of the results of tensile tests upon briquettes exposed to frost, compared with those kept under normal conditions.

This kind of test may be of much value in showing the frost-resisting properties of various materials, and often gives interesting results. They are to be used with care, however, in determining from them the probable effect of frost upon work in which the mortar may be used. Only the results of briquette tests, and the results of tests of material in large masses in construction are to be relied upon. Injury to work may perhaps result not only from the injurious effect of frost upon the strength of the mortar, but also from expansive action upon the mortar, after setting, while still too weak to offer resistance to distortion.

Some laboratories it is the custom to make tests of the yield of mortar obtained from given weights of materials employed. This may sometimes be of importance as affecting the economy of use of various materials, while a study of the differences obtained with different material is interesting.

In conducting such tests it is evidently necessary to adopt a standard method of gauging the ingredients, the yield of the resulting product being much affected by variations in manipulations. The method employed is to measure directly the volume of paste obtained by adding to standard consistency a unit weight of neat cement or of cement and sand in proper proportions. For this purpose the paste is put in a graduated glass measure, care being taken to eliminate all of the air-bubbles.

Sometimes the test is made by making blocks of the material which are allowed to set, their volumes being subsequently obtained by greasing their surfaces and weighing them in air and water.

ART. 70. TESTS OF SAND.

Properties of the sand to be used in mortar are of much importance in determining the relative value of different sands and as in studying the effect of variations in the nature, color, or size of grains of which it may be composed. Complete tests should include an examination of the color of the sand, its fineness as shown by the amount

strength of mortar made from the
tested as compared with similar tests made
sand are of most importance as indicating
the sand to combine with cement in forming

CHAPTER IX.

MENT MORTAR AND CONCRETE.

ART. 71. SAND FOR MORTAR.

aulic cement is commonly mixed with cer-
tions of sand, when used in construction,
and quantity of sand used, and the method
lating the materials in forming the mortar,
as important an effect upon the final strength
k as the quality of cement itself.

g cement, a standard sand is usually em-
his sand may be obtained quite uniform in
n the execution of work, however, local sand
rally be employed; this varies widely in char-
should always be carefully considered upon
tant work, where the development of strength
g qualities in the mortar are of importance.

portance of the quality of sand in mortar is
only appreciated, and but little attention is
ven to securing good sand even when the
subjected to rigid requirements.

wman, in his book on concrete, in speaking
aterials used in concrete, says: "Considering
varied character of sand and gravel, it seems
attention should be given to the particulariza-

of it from an engineering point of view different, even in a small area; and to particular as to the character and quality of cement, and apparently regardless of that of the gravel, although the latter form 85% to the volume of concrete at the time of mixing, and is capable of vindication, especially as Portland-cement should be a monolithic mass, and the object is to retard induration and decrease strength." The *cal nature* of the sand does not appear to have an important bearing upon its usefulness in mortar. It is sometimes thought to exercise a slow action, and perhaps aid somewhat in the setting of the mortar. It is usually the best for the purpose. Calcareous sands are good, if not composed of soft particles. Argillaceous sand is less desirable, and has been found in some cases apparently to cause ultimate disintegration in mortar, although a small admixture of clay in the mortar is not objectionable, and has been shown in experiments not to decrease the strength when present in an amount not exceeding 10% of the sand. For use in mortar should be clean, and as free from silt, mud, or organic matter as possible. In the presence of any foreign matter is to be

ams.
sand is usually preferable to that which is provided it be fine enough to give a smooth surface it gives better strength. The coarse sand gives a rough surface to be coated with cement, and the joints are more easily filled. Fine sand requires more water in mixing in order to arrive at the proper consistency, and thus gives usually a more porous mortar. Fine sand may, however, be desirable when a smooth mortar is the object.

The use of a mixture of grains of various sizes is desirable, as giving less voids to be filled by cement; and it is frequently found that when the cement is not in considerable excess the strength obtained with such a mixture is much greater than is given by the use of the large or small grains alone.

This is doubtless due to the voids in the sand being completely filled by the cement. Large grains of sand are more desirable where a meagre mortar is employed, the quantity of cement being insufficient to fill the voids and only used to coat the grains and cement them together.

Sea-water is objectionable in mortar exposed to the weather on account of the increased porosity. In using quick-setting cement the dryness of the mortar is a matter of importance; if the sand be damp the mixture of sand and cement is made, sufficient moisture may be given off to induce hydration

set, was greatly modified in action, probably due to the hydration of the aluminate of lime. At ten minutes in contact with sand containing moisture, and then sifted out, had its time increased from a few minutes to several hours. And was very wet, the action was more serious and strength resulted.

ART. 72. PROPORTIONING MORTAR.

The proportions of the ingredients to be used are usually stated as a ratio of parts of cement and sand, and the quantities are determined either by weight or by volume. Cement should always be measured by weight on account of the variation in volume of different brands, and the difficulty of measuring by volume. Sand may be measured by volume.

The proportions of sand and cement to be used in mortar depend upon the nature of the work and the strength required for the development of strength or imperviousness of the mortar. The volume of interstices to be filled with the forms and sizes of the grains of sand, and the quantity of cement necessary to reach the required strength with different sands varies considerably. The weight of a given weight of sand is also greater when

Leclaire et Chaux hydrauliques (Paris, 1891).

proportions most commonly used in ordinary
for natural cements, one part cement to one
two parts sand, and for Portland cement
cement to three parts sand. If the proportions
mixture were regulated by the value of the sand
of economy might frequently require changes
ions, and would usually demand the use of
and obtainable.

and in a 1 to 3 mixture frequently gives greater
than a poorer one mixed 1 to 2, and either
y give equally good results in practice.

ment in mortar must, for the best results, both
rains of sand so as to cause them to adhere to
r, and fill the voids between them. Mortar
posed to the action of water, particularly sea-
ould always contain a surplus of cement over
ecessary to fill the voids in the sand.

ddlot gives as a minimum for mortar to be
ea-water a proportion of 600 kilogrammes of
a cubic meter of sand, which is to be increased
cement is not finely ground.

and is to be avoided, if possible; when used,
rtion of cement to be increased.

complete filling of the voids in the sand so as to
e water from the interior of the mass and pre-
action of the magnesian salts upon the cement
work a matter of first importance.

he mortar is to be subjected to the action of

ing of the lime forms a protection to the
ar, which is not subject, as in sea-water, to
he magnesian salts.

ART. 73. GAUGING MORTAR.

cement mortar, the cement and sand are
ly mixed dry, the water then added, and
orked to a uniformly plastic condition.
the mortar will depend upon the thorough-
peration; the cement must be uniformly
through the sand during the dry mixing,
ghly working the mass after the addition
will greatly increase its strength. In mix-
, by the ordinary method, a platform or
the sand and cement are placed upon the
ayers, with a layer of sand at bottom, and
and mixed with shovels until properly dis-
ugh the mass. The material is then formed
or a mound with a crater at the center, and
necessary added at once, after which the
hrown up from the sides until the water is
and then worked into a plastic condition.
to secure proper manipulation of the ma-
part of the workmen, it is quite common
at the whole mass shall be turned over a cer-
of times with the shovel, both dry and wet.
g should be quickly and energetically done,

quantity of water used until wanted, as the moisture commonly will to some extent act upon the cement. In large works mechanical mixers are frequently used with the advantage of greatly lessening the labor in manipulating the material, and also of insuring thorough mixing.

The quantity of water to be used in gauging mortar is determined only by experiment in each instance, depending upon the nature of the cement and sand, and the proportion of sand to cement. The water is considered as made up of two parts—that necessary to make the neat cement to a paste, and that required to wet the surfaces of the sand. The first varies with the quantity of cement, the second with the nature of the sand. Fine sand requires more water than coarse sand to reach the same consistency, and mortar should be made a little more wet than when made with coarse sand, to give the best results in practice. The quantity of water also varies with the dryness of the sand and the humidity of the atmosphere.

The quantity of water to be used in mixing mortar for ordinary masonry is such that the mortar when mixed shall have a stiff plastic condition. It should not be a soft, semi-fluid mass. The proper consistency is described by M. Chandlot as such that if the mortar be formed in the hand and allowed to fall from a small height, it should neither lose its

ch it is to be in contact.

the proper quantity of water should first be determined by experiment, and afterward, in preparation for use in work, the required quantity of water should be added by measurement. The water should be added a little by little, or from a hose, should be added.

74. PREPARATION OF CONCRETE.

any mixture of mortar with coarse material, such as broken stone, the office of the mortar is to bind together the pieces of the aggregate and fill the spaces between them. In engineering work the concrete is commonly formed from hydraulic mortar, *beton* being also frequently used to designate hydraulic concrete.

When concrete is made by hand the mortar is mixed in a separate manner; then the stone is spread over the mortar and thoroughly mixed with the mortar by means of shovels. The stone should be thoroughly wet before being mixed with the mortar, sufficient to prevent the absorption of water from the mortar, thus promoting the adhesion of the mortar to the aggregate.

Concrete should never, as is frequently done, be made to a fluid state; not only is the result of this the mortar reduced by so doing, but it prevents the mortar from being properly mixed with the aggregate to form

the work. The consistency of concrete must depend upon its nature and method of placing. The greatest strength may usually be attained by placing somewhat dry and heavily ramming, the mortar attaining such consistency that the concrete becomes plastic, jelly-like, water being brought to the surface by the ramming. An extreme either of dryness or wetness is dangerous.

Machine mixers are frequently employed for preparing concrete, and are very useful in saving labor. Large quantities are used. There are a number of forms which have proven effective in use, but it is unnecessary to enter into a discussion of them.

The aggregate used for concrete should be as hard as possible, and that of angular form is better than rounded. Angular forms give a greater surface for the adherence of the mortar in proportion to the volume of the aggregate while leaving a less volume of interstices to be filled with mortar. The materials should be uniform in quality. Where gravel is used which varies in size it should be blended by mixing in order to obtain uniform strength in the concrete. Porous aggregates should be avoided, as they are likely to absorb water. When the materials are absorbent, they should be saturated in sprinkling before using, in order to prevent withdrawing water from the mortar before it sets in place.

work under consideration. When the
is to be water-tight, the amount of cement
sufficient to fill the interstices in the mix-
ed sand. The quantity of sand necessary
stices in the stone may be determined by
ure with stone as closely as possible, and
g the quantity of water which can be
e measure; this gives the volume of sand
be proper quantity of damp sand be added
the measure by shaking it down so as to
the volume of water which can then be
ure is the volume of cement paste necessary
in the aggregate.

h of concrete usually varies nearly in
the amount of cement used in forming
strong concrete is desired, it should be
ncreasing the richness of the mortar in
y increasing the proportion of mortar to
above the point at which the sand fills the
hat material. If the proportion of sand
his, the resulting concrete will be porous
ghly solidified; if it be greater, the excess
be an element of weakness in the concrete.
of concrete in considerable masses the
the work is sometimes formed of very
, with a facing of stronger water-tight
tect it. This weak concrete is frequently
mitting the sand altogether and simply
one lightly with neat cement, causing the

to 5/10 of the volume, depending upon its uniformity in size. Where there is considerable variation in size, the voids may be somewhat less. When the interstices are to be filled, it is desirable that the aggregate contain material of various sizes, to reduce the volume of interstices. For this reason small gravel is sometimes mixed with broken stone in the preparation of concrete. The proportions in common use for concrete of Portland cement vary from 1 part cement, 2 parts sand, 5 parts broken stone to 1 part cement, 4 parts sand, 8 or 10 parts broken stone or gravel. Usually the mortar is made richer when natural cement is used. The proportions of course vary with the character of the materials to be used as well as that of the work to be done, and can only be properly determined by the exercise of good judgment, in the light of experience.

ART. 75. YIELD OF MORTAR AND CONCRETE.

The volume of mortar formed by mixing given quantities of cement and sand depends upon the densities of the materials and the volume of interstices in the sand. It is affected also by the method of preparing the mortar, the uniformity of the mixing, and the degree of compactness given.

The net volume of materials entering into the composition of mortar or concrete is readily found from their weights and densities, but it represents only approximately

ment is usually sold in barrels containing
 Natural cements are lighter, and are
 of 260 to 320 lbs. Barrels of Rosen-
 usually contain 300 lbs.

of neat cement paste made by a given
 nt powder varies with the specific gravity
 and the amount of water necessary in
 lighter cements require more water and
 e for a given volume of cement than the
 To form a cubic foot of plastic paste
 y from 75 to 90 lbs. of natural-cement
 80 to 85 lbs. of Rosendale cement being
 about 95 to 100 lbs. of Portland cement

and mortar, where the cement and sand
 by volume measured loose, the quantities
 in a cubic yard of mortar are approximately

Natural Cement. Pounds.		Portland Cement. Pounds.		Sand. Cu. Yd.
1050	1250	1350	1530	.65 to .70
640 "	720	810 "	920	.80 " .85
500 "	575	620 "	690	.93 " .96
400 "	460	500 "	575	1.00
320 "	375	400 "	460	1.00

when the aggregate is broken stone
 it is necessary, in order to fill the in-
 mortar, that the volume of mortar be 50%
 of the aggregate. For such concrete a
 .9 cubic yard of broken stone with .50

cement, 3 parts sand, and 5 parts broken stone. Where the stone is more irregular in size, or if gravel of smaller size be added, a smaller proportion of mortar will give good results. Thus, .6 cubic yard of broken stone with .4 cubic yard of gravel and .3 cubic yard of mortar has been found to yield 1 cubic yard of good concrete. This, using 1 to 2 mortar, gives the proportion 1 part cement, 2 parts sand, 3 parts gravel, and 7 parts broken stone.

When the amount of mortar used is less than that stated above, and the interstices in the aggregate are not filled, the yield of concrete is about equal to the volume of aggregate employed.

ART. 76. MIXTURES OF LIME AND CEMENT.

Slaked lime is sometimes mixed with hydraulic cement for the purpose of decreasing the cost of construction. Experiments seem to indicate that a very considerable percentage of lime may frequently be added without material loss of strength in the mortar.

With Portland cement the addition of lime weakens the mortar somewhat, the decrease in strength augmenting rapidly as the proportion of lime increases.

With some American natural cements it has been found that a certain amount (sometimes 30% to 40%) of lime may be added without sensibly decreasing the strength of the mortar or impairing its hydraulic prop-

mortar by the admixture of lime, better
ained than by using a higher proportion
ortar thus formed is less porous than that
ger proportion of sand, and it is also more
er to work. In making the mixture the
y slaked in the usual manner and used
ste, although it may be slaked to powder
with the cement. By the first method the
of the lime is insured.

e of lime causes the cement to become
he quick-setting cement being affected
an the less active ones.

small proportion of Portland cement is
el to hydraulic lime for the purpose of
setting and increasing the strength of

natural and Portland cement have fre-
ed in the United States for the purpose
e action of the quick-setting material or
construction. They seem generally to
ounded of those which would be obtained
ngly.

of all these mixtures will be found to
particular cement employed, and the
be known by trial in each instance. In
good results, the mixtures must be very

not injured by freezing, when frozen before the cement sets with extreme slowness, if at all, but after thawing it sets and hardens properly. Even for short periods—a few days—does not freeze, but the experiments of Mr. Cecil B. McGill University seem to show that if kept sufficient period it may finally set while frozen. The setting of cement which has been frozen is slower than that unfrozen, but it may ultimately have the same strength.

Construction during freezing weather is frequently injured by freezing, notwithstanding the fact that the cement itself shows no loss of strength due to the effect of frost coming upon the work. Fully hardened is frequently found to distort or show unequal settlement in it, and sometimes repeated thawing gradually cause the mortar to be displaced or of place or perhaps to become cracked and exposed on the outside. The construction of cement during freezing weather is therefore usually considered hazardous, unless some means be adopted to counteract the freezing action. Many instances may be cited where extreme cold has not injured construction, without such precaution, with Portland cement, and it is claimed by many engineers that it may be used with impunity in freezing weather, provided it is not placed in work while a freezing temperature prevails. It is commonly agreed that most

ing been injured by changing temperature
er, although it may not have frozen for
e after setting.

commonly used in cold weather to prevent
mortar while it is soft. A strong solution,
saturated one, is employed. The salt, by
freezing of the water, prevents any distorting
ion upon the work due to the change in
mortar. The use of salt considerably
tivity of the cement, and mortar may
condition at freezing temperatures and
the temperature becomes sufficient to

early strength of cement mortar which
with salt water on exposure to low tem-
setting is usually greater than that of
the salt and exposed at the same tempera-

salt upon the strength of various kinds
e different. In nearly all, the strength
in air is increased by its use. When
ept under water, most cements have
ly strength from the use of salt, which
final strength being somewhat reduced.
most Portland cements. Some natural
material loss of strength when mixed
while others are entirely ruined by a
with or without the use of salt. Care
taken to determine the action of salt

contact with water immediately after setting, as
times salt mortar which has been exposed to low
temperature may lose its cohesion if submerged soon
after setting.

It has sometimes been employed to prevent the
drying of mortar, but its use has not become exten-
sive and has usually proven unsatisfactory.

Hot water should not be used in mixing mortar in
cold weather. It not only decreases the strength
of the mortar, but renders it more liable to injury from
frost. Heating the stones or bricks in the construc-
tion of masonry in freezing weather may be beneficial,
serving to accelerate the setting and keep the mor-
tar from freezing while soft.

The injury done to the mortar by low temperatures is
probably not usually due to freezing before setting, but
to alternate thawing and freezing while work is still fresh,
before the hardening is sufficiently advanced to render the
mortar capable of adequately resisting the expansive
forces. The effect of frost upon mortar which has set
is similar to that upon stone or brick, and is due to the
increase in volume of water freezing in its pores. Its
severity therefore depends both upon the porosity of the
mortar and upon the strength it possesses to resist dis-
integration. The more rapid acquisition of strength by
portland cements may give them the advantage they
possess in this regard.

Prof. Le Chatelier, from his experiments upon the
subject, concludes as follows: "This disintegration, like

the void are small. When the voids are large, the ice breaks with a pressure less which will rupture the mortar. For this of large sand are less affected, the voids are less numerous."

PERMEABILITY AND PERMEABILITY OF MORTAR.

Permeability of cement mortar depends rather upon the proportion of the materials in gauging than upon the quantity of cement. When the quantity of cement is sufficient to fill the voids in the sand, spaces are not available for the absorption of water without increase in volume of the mortar.

When mortar air-bubbles attach themselves to the surface, the number of which is greater as the mortar is more wet. Working the mortar tends to increase the number. Voids in the mortar are also caused by the absorption of surplus water used in mixing. The more water as the quantity of water used in gauging increases and as the sand used is finer.

Permeability of cement mortars varies with the quantity of cement and the circumstances of its use. Portland cement may be made practically impervious under a considerable head of water; but a mixture of cement and sand seems always more permeable, but when properly proportioned and properly cured, it permits very little water to pass. The permeability of mortar decreases rapidly with

blocks of mortar be submitted to the continuous action of water, the permeability diminishes very slowly, and after a few months all mortars, except those of very coarse sand and feeble proportion of cement, become practically impermeable.

Both the porosity and permeability are less for mortar rich in cement than for that in which the proportion of cement is small. Mortar mixed dry is penetrated more readily than that mixed to a plastic or semi-plastic condition. With the lapse of time, however, the mortar mixed dry, if constantly exposed to water, approaches the others in resistance to permeation. The thoroughness of mixing and degree of compacting employed are more important factors than the absolute quantity of water used in mixing.

Fine sand, according to the experiments of M. Alexandre, renders the mortar more porous and less permeable than coarse sand. When the sand is of varying fineness both the porosity and permeability may be low. In any case, to attain a reasonable resistance to permeation, it is necessary that the interstices in the sand be entirely filled with cement. Cleanliness of the sand, freedom from all foreign material, is of first importance in the preparation of impermeable mortar.

Masonry of ordinary brick or stone can only be made pervious by the application of a coating of some kind to its face. A plastering of neat cement or rich mortar may sometimes be used for this purpose, and

as with masonry, to coat the face of
in order that concrete may be reasonably
necessary that the quantity of cement
preparing it be sufficient to fill the voids in
employed, as well as that the voids in
pletely filled with cement paste in mak-

EXPANSION AND CONTRACTION OF MORTAR.

In large masses of masonry or concrete
is liable to occur in the volume of mortar
become of importance, and it may be
provision by which changes in dimen-
sion without injury to the work.

Expansion of neat cement under
heat is, as previously stated, about the
same, although it may vary in individual
mortars containing sand, the coefficient
of neat cement.

Mortars differ considerably in their behavior during
the process of the hardening process, as to the
change in the volume of the mortar.
It is apt to swell and become distorted
during the process of disintegration,
and any considerable change of this nature
is probable destruction of the mortar. Per-
manent, although not altered in form, is
somewhat in dimensions during hard-

Massachusetts Institute of Technology for a committee of the American Society of Civil Engineers, found that for small blocks of mortar the change was the same in all directions; that for neat cements the linear contraction in air varied from 0.14% to 0.32% for the first twelve weeks after mixing, and the linear expansion in water varied from 0.04% to 0.25%. When sand was used the change was less, giving a contraction in air from 0.08% to 0.17%, and an expansion in water of from 0.00% to 0.08%.

The rapidity of the change varies somewhat with the activity of the cement; the conclusion being that a quick-setting cement changes more in volume than a slow-setting one.

Further experiment is desirable, that the action of the various classes of cement may be better understood.

ART. 80. EFFECT OF RETEMPERING MORTAR.

Masons frequently mix mortar in considerable quantities, and, if the mass becomes stiffened before being used by the setting of the cement, add more water and work again to a soft or plastic condition. After the second tempering the cement is much less active than at first, and remains a longer time in a workable condition.

This practice is not usually approved by engineers, and is not permitted in good engineering construction, although there is some dispute as to its injurious effect.

plastic at the second working. The mortar so treated is very slow at first, but eventually (the tests extend over three years) attains its full strength as when gauged immediately.

It is frequently claimed that the adhesive properties of mortars are improved by giving it the "second cure." The common practice of masons who set fire-bricks and similar work is based upon this idea. An experiment to determine this point would be

of experiments other than those already mentioned seemed to show that in some instances the mortar by retempering, some cements would set the second time. Until more is known of the action of the material when subjected to such treatment it seems advisable to mix only such material as may be used before the initial set and to reject any material that may have been previously placed in the work.

APPENDIX.

CTIONS FOR THE RECEPTION OF CEMENT.

GENERAL REMARKS.

tion which has been given of the various cement, the requirements of specifications considered, but it is thought desirable to actual specifications to show the requirement in practice.

tions recommended by the committee of Society of Testing Materials for use by engineers are first given. These specifications are as the standard of the best American cement, although many specifications in common in important particulars from them.

ifications of existing practice at the time are recommended by these specifications, of testing soundness and in the use of cement for rate of setting.

Standard Specifications recommended by Engineering Standards Committee" in 1905 are also

new brands, or of a single brand, complying with the above specifications, but depend upon the reliability of the material or perhaps upon occasional examinations of the material is up to standard. This is the practice upon ordinary railroad work, in some instances, where the use is continuous and contracts may be made for the material, is quite

seems, generally, to be no good reason for specifications in an indefinite manner. The conditions to be imposed may as easily be plainly stated, and there is no doubt as to the requirements.

A.

AMERICAN SOCIETY FOR TESTING MATERIALS.

REPORT OF COMMITTEE ON STANDARD SPECIFICATIONS FOR CEMENT.

GENERAL OBSERVATIONS.

The remarks have been prepared with a view of pointing out the pertinent features of the various requirements and the precautions to be observed in the interpretation of the results of the tests.

The committee would suggest that the acceptance or rejection under these specifications be based on tests made by an experienced person having the proper means for conducting the tests.

th the results of other tests may afford
tions.

-The sieves should be kept thoroughly dry.
Testing.—Great care should be exercised to
st pieces under as uniform conditions as
dden change or wide range of temperature
which the tests are made, a very dry or
ere, and other irregularities vitally affect
ng.

Strength.—Each consumer must fix the
irements for tensile strength to suit his
. They shall, however, be within the

of volume.—The tests for constancy of
ided into two classes, the first normal, the
ated. The latter should be regarded as
y test only, and not infallible. So many
into the making and interpreting of it that
ed with extreme care.

g the pats the greatest care should be
oid initial strains due to moulding or to
g out during the first twenty-four hours.
ld be preserved under the most uniform
sible, and rapid changes of temperature
ded.

re to meet the requirements of the accele-
d not be sufficient cause for rejection. The
owever, be held for twenty-eight days and

unsoundness, nor can the cement be considered satisfactory simply because it passes the tests.

STANDARD SPECIFICATIONS FOR CEMENT.

General conditions.--All cement shall be inspected. Cement may be inspected either at the place of manufacture or on the work.

Time shall be allowed to allow ample time for inspecting and testing. Cement should be stored in a suitable weather-tight building having the floor properly blocked or raised from the ground.

Cement shall be stored in such a manner as to permit ready access for proper inspection and identification of each shipment.

Inspection facility shall be provided by the contractor. A period of at least twelve days allowed for the inspection and necessary tests.

Cement shall be delivered in suitable packages. Brand and name of manufacturer plainly marked on each package.

Each bag of cement shall contain 94 lbs. of cement net. Each barrel of Portland cement shall contain 4 bags, and each barrel of natural cement shall contain 3 bags, each bag above net weight.

Cement failing to meet the seven-day requirements shall be held awaiting the results of the twenty-eight-day test. If rejection.

Secretary, Jan. 21, 1903, and amended with all subsequent amendments thereto. Acceptance or rejection shall be based on the requirements:

NATURAL CEMENT.

1.—This term shall be applied to the product resulting from the calcination of pure limestone at a temperature only sufficient to drive off the carbonic-acid gas.

Gravity.—The specific gravity of the cement when tested at 100° C. shall be not less than 2.8.

—It shall leave by weight a residue of not more than 10 per cent on the No. 100 and 30 per cent on the No. 20 sieve.

Setting.—It shall develop initial set in not less than 15 minutes, and hard set in not less than thirty minutes, and shall retain its strength for more than three hours.

Strength.—The minimum requirements for strength for briquettes 1 inch square in cross-section within the following limits, and shall show no appreciable loss of strength within the periods

NEAT CEMENT.

	Strength.
in moist air.	50-100 lbs.
in moist air, 6 days in water).	100-200 "
" " " 27 " " ")	200-300 "

Change of volume.—Pats of neat cement about 1 inch in diameter, $\frac{1}{2}$ inch thick at center, tapering to a point at the edges, shall be kept in moist air for a period of twenty-

days. The pat is then kept in air at normal temperature. Another is kept in water maintained as near 70° F. as practicable.

The pats are observed at intervals for at least 7 days, and, to satisfactorily pass the tests, they must be in firm and hard condition and show no signs of disintegrating, cracking, or disintegrating.

PORTLAND CEMENT.

Definition.—This term is applied to the finely divided product resulting from the calcination to fusion of an intimate mixture of properly selected argillaceous and calcareous materials, and no addition greater than 3 per cent has been made to the product after calcination.

Specific gravity.—The specific gravity of the cement, when dried at 100° C., shall be not less than 3.10.

Loss by water.—It shall leave by weight a residue of not more than 8 per cent on the No. 100, and not more than 10 per cent on the No. 200 sieve.

Time of setting.—It shall develop initial set in not more than thirty minutes, but must develop hard set in not more than one hour, nor more than ten hours.

Strength within the periods specified:

NEAT CEMENT.

	Strength.
in moist air.	150-200 lbs.
in air, 6 days in water).	450-550 "
" " 27 " " " "	550-650 "

PART CEMENT, 3 PARTS SAND.

in moist air, 6 days in water).	150-200 lbs.
" " " 27 " " " ").	200-300 "

of volume.—Pats of neat cement about 1 inch diameter, one half inch thick at the centre, to a thin edge, shall be kept in moist air twenty-four hours.

then kept in air at normal temperature and intervals for at least 28 days.

pat is kept in water maintained as near practicable, and observed at intervals for 28 days.

pat is exposed in any convenient way in steam of steam, above boiling water, in a loosely covered vessel for five hours.

tests to satisfactorily pass the requirements of strength, firm and hard and show no signs of distortion, cracking, or disintegration.

acid and magnesia.—The cement shall contain not more than 1.75 per cent of anhydrous sulphuric acid (SO_3), nor more than 4 per cent of mag-

CTIONS ISSUED BY THE ENGI-
G STANDARDS COMMITTEE.

SUPPORTED BY

TUTION OF CIVIL ENGINEERS.
TUTION OF MECHANICAL ENGINEERS.
TUTION OF NAVAL ARCHITECTS.
AND STEEL INSTITUTE.
TUTION OF ELECTRICAL ENGINEERS.

TANDARD SPECIFICATIONS FOR
PORTLAND CEMENT.

preparation.—(1) The cement is to be
timately mixing together calcareous and
aterials, burning them at a clinkering
nd grinding the resulting clinker. No
y material is to be made after burning,
desired by the manufacturer, and if not
writing by the consumer, in which case
te or water may be used. The cement,
all contain not more than 2 per cent of
that water has been added or has been
rbed from the air. If calcium sulphate
more than 2 per cent calculated as anhy-
sulphate of the weight of the cement shall

and preparation for testing and analysis.—(2)
e cement has been bulked at the maker's

the same heap, so distributed as to insure practicable a fair average sample of the all to be mixed together and the sample be taken therefrom.

In gauging the tests, the sample so obtained is out for a depth of 3 inches for twenty-four temperature of 58° to 64° Fahr.

Cases where consignments are of 100 tons samples selected as above for each consigner at the maker's works or after delivery where the cement is to be used, are to be put testing and for chemical analysis. In no case so tested and analyzed to be accepted or previously certified in writing by the consumer of satisfactory quality. Payment for such analyses to be made by the consumer, the consumer supplying the cement required for the test charge. When consignments of less than 100 tons are to be supplied, the maker shall, if required, issue certificates for each delivery, to the effect that the cement complies with the terms of this standard, with regard to quality, tests, and analyses, no payment being made by the consumer for such certificate nor for the making of such analyses.

It should be deemed more convenient by the consumer that the samples for testing should be taken at the maker's works before delivery, the latter are, in

sampled by him. No parcel is to be sent away without an order has been previously received by the said consumer to the effect that the parcel in question has been approved.

and sieves.—(6) The cement shall be ground to the following degrees of fineness, viz.:

On a sieve $76 \times 76 = 5776$ meshes per square inch not to exceed 5 per cent.

On a sieve $180 \times 180 = 32,400$ meshes per square inch not to exceed $22\frac{1}{2}$ per cent.

The sieves are to be prepared from standard wire; the wire for the 5776 mesh is to be .0044 inch diameter; for the 32,400 mesh .0018 inch. The wire shall be of standard twist (not twilled), the cloth being carefully mounted on the sieves without distortion.

Specific gravity.—(7) The specific gravity of the cement shall be not less than 3.15 when sampled and hermetically sealed at the makers' works, nor less than 3.10 if sampled at any time prior to the consumer.

Composition.—(8) The cement is to comply with the following conditions as to its chemical composition:—There shall be no excess of lime, that is to say, the proportion of lime shall not be greater than is necessary to saturate the silica and alumina present. The percentage of insoluble residue shall not exceed 5 per cent; that of magnesia shall not exceed 3 per cent; that of sulphuric anhydride shall not exceed 1 per cent.

form a smooth, easily worked paste the trowel cleanly in a compact mass. To be used for gauging, the temperature of the test-room at the time the said operation is performed, being from 58° to 61° Fahr.

Gauged as above is to be filled, without tamping, into moulds; each mould resting on a flat surface until the cement has set. When the cement is sufficiently set to enable the mould to be removed without injury to the briquette, such removal may be made. The said briquettes shall be kept in a moist atmosphere and placed in fresh water twenty-four hours for gauging and kept there until broken, after which the test briquettes are submerged in water every seven days and the temperature maintained between 58° and 61° Fahr.

(c) Briquettes of neat cement are to be made at seven and twenty-eight days, six briquettes for each period. The average weight of the six briquettes shall be taken as the weight for each period. For tensile strength for each period. For each test, a briquette is to be held in strong metal jaws, the jaws being slightly greased where gripped by the jaws. The load must then be steadily and uniformly increased from zero, increasing at the rate of 100 pounds per second. The briquettes are to bear on tensile stresses less than the following tensile stresses:

When the 7-day test falls between 400 to 450 lbs.
the inch.

When the 7-day test falls between 450 to 500 lbs.
1/2 inch.

When the 7-day test falls between 500 to 550 lbs.
re inch.

when the 7-day test falls between 550 lbs. per
cch or upwards.

Tests.—(11) The cement shall also be tested by briquettes prepared from one part of cement to three parts by weight of dry standard sand, the said briquettes being of the shape described for the neat-cement tests; the mode of gauging, filling the moulds, and striking the briquettes is also to be similar. The quantity of water used shall be such that the mixture is thoroughly wetted, and there shall be no superfluous water when the briquettes are formed. The cement and briquettes are to bear the following tensile

from gauging. . 120 lbs. per square inch of section.

" " .. 225 " " " " "

increase from seven to twenty-eight days shall not
than 20 per cent.

standard sand referred to above is to be obtained Brighton Buzzard. It must be thoroughly washed, and pass through a sieve of 20×20 meshes per inch, and must be retained on a sieve of 30×30

ing time, which shall be designated as "quick," and "slow." *

The setting-time shall not be less than ten more than thirty minutes.

The setting-time shall not be less than half more than two hours.

The setting-time shall not be less than two more than five hours.*

perature of the air in the test-room at the time and of the water used is to be between 58° hr.

ent shall be considered as "set" when a needle at end $\frac{1}{16}$ inch square, weighing in all $2\frac{1}{2}$ lbs., make an impression when its point is applied the surface.

ss.—(13) The cement shall be tested by the er method, and is in no case to show a greater than 12 millimeters after twenty-four hours' and 6 millimeters after 7 days' aeration.

The apparatus for conducting the Le Chatelier ts of a small split cylinder of spring brass or able metal of 0.5 millimeter (.0197 inch) in 30 millimeters (1.1875 inches) internal diam- 30 millimeters high, forming the mould to which side of the split are attached two indicators 6.5 inches) long from the cylinder, ted ends.

a specially slow-setting cement is required the minimum ing shall be specified.

The mould is then covered with another glass plate, and a small weight is placed on this, and the mould is slowly placed in water at 58° to 64° Fahr. and left for twenty-four hours.

The distance separating the indicator points is then measured, and the mould placed in cold water, which is brought to the boiling-point in 15 to 30 minutes and left for six hours. After cooling, the distance separating the points is again measured; the difference between the two measurements represents the expansion of the cement, which must not exceed the limits laid down in this specification.

The tests and analyses hereinbefore referred to shall in no case relate to a larger quantity of cement than was actually sampled at one time.

Specimen.—(15) No cement is to be approved or rejected unless it fully complies with the foregoing con-

C.

U. S. RECLAMATION SERVICE, 1905.

F. H. NEWELL, *Chief Engineer.*

Definition.—The cement shall be high-grade Portland cement. By the term Portland cement is to be understood the material obtained by finely pulverized clinker produced by burning to semi-fusion an intimate

tion of the sum of calcium oxide and sum of the silica, alumina, and ferric be less than 1.7 to 1 nor more than 2.2 not contain over 3 per cent of magnesia of sulphate of lime. But in certain cases amounts of these substances are objectionable charge may specify lower percentages. uncombined lime shall be determined. The question of adulteration may be er by chemical analyses or by inspection t the factory.

is will be received only from manufacturers ized agents, and the name of the brand all cases be stated.

barrel or sack.—The average weight per be less than 375 lbs. net. Four sacks barrel of cement. If the weight as deter- weighings is found to be below 375 lbs. contractor may be required to supply, free United States, an additional amount of o the shortage.

damaged cement.—If the cement is delivered barrels shall be strong and lined with cement shall be free from lumps. Any broken or that contains damaged cement by the United States agent in local charge.

—Samples of cement are to be taken from ucks with a sampling-tube in such manner ir average of the packages. They are to

rate and tested separately. Where the results indicate variation in the quality of the cement, 1 barrels or sacks will be sampled and tested.

Storage and testing.—No cement shall be shipped less than sixty days after its manufacture, except in case of an emergency, and with the approval of the engineer in charge, a shorter time may be allowed, if the cement shows indications of unsoundness, a longer time may be required. The contractor shall maintain, in sacks or barrels, such stocks of cement as the engineer shall require, free of expense to the Government, for sampling and testing during a period of thirty-eight days.

Notice of shipment.—The engineer shall give notice in writing to the contractor of the approximate requirements for cement shipments and of dates for sampling. In the absence of such notice the contractor shall be responsible for the delivery of the cement in good condition at the place of shipment.

Laboratory inspection.—The Government engineer, or authorized agent, shall at all times have liberty to inspect the materials, process of manufacture, and laboratory records of analyses and tests at the works.

Soundness.—Ninety-five per cent by weight must pass through a No. 100 sieve having 10,000 meshes per square inch, the wire to be No. 40 Stubbs wire gauge; five per cent by weight must pass through a No. 200

be less than 3.

—Pats are to be made of neat mortar consistency. The pats are to be moulded on a flat surface, and are to be circular in shape, 3 inches in diameter, 1 inch thick in the centre, and drawn to a circular circumference, and are to be kept under a moist atmosphere, until finally set. When put in water, the temperature of which is at the boiling-point and kept at that point until the pat softens, cracks, warps, or disintegrates, the cement is unsound.

Setting.—The cement shall not acquire its final set less than forty-five minutes, and must set within twelve hours. The pats of cement soundness may be used in determining the final set. The cement is considered to have attained its final set when the pat will bear, without being indented, a wire $\frac{1}{8}$ inch in diameter and weighing one fourth pound. The final set has been attained when the pat will bear, without being indented, a needle $\frac{1}{8}$ inch in diameter and weighing one pound.

Briquettes.—In making briquettes, neat mortar of normal consistency will be used. The mortar is to be roughly mixed with a trowel and kneaded with the thumbs, a blunt stick, or a similar implement. Briquettes will be made from each sample.

For the preparation of briquettes, the proportions shall be one part of cement to three parts of standard

above shall stand a minimum tensile strain
inch as follows:

air and 6 days in water..... 450 lbs.
" " 27 " " " 550 "

l-mortar briquettes, prepared as specified
stand a minimum tensile strain per square
ws:

in air and 6 days in water. 175 lbs.
" " 27 " " " 225 "

requirements. --The above are to be considered the
requirements. The neat tests are to be con-
less value than those of sand and cement.
-eight-day tests must always be higher than
ay tests. A cement may be rejected which
t any of the above requirements.

D.

ATIONS FOR MUNICIPAL WORK IN
DELPHIA. DEPARTMENT OF PUB-
WORKS.

BUREAU OF SURVEYS.

GEORGE S. WEBSTER, *Chief Engineer*.

d weight.--Portland cement only shall be
rels shall contain 376 lbs. net. Bags shall
lbs. net each.

use it. The chief engineer shall be notified on receipt of each shipment at the work. No cement is to be used unless delivered in suitable packages and properly stored.

—The cement must be protected in a suitable manner, having a wooden floor or platform raised around, and may be reinspected at any time.

brand.—The failure of a shipment of cement to meet the following requirements may prevent the use of the same brand on that work. Cement failing to meet these requirements must be immediately removed from the work.

The acceptance or rejection of a cement to be used shall rest with the chief engineer, and will be subject to the following requirements:

Specific gravity. Not less than 3.1.

Compressive strength:

(1 part of cement, 3 parts of sand, 6 days in air, 6 days in water). 500 lbs.

(1 part of cement, 3 parts of sand, 27 days in air, 27 days in water). 600 lbs.

(1 part of cement, 3 parts of sand, 6 days in air, 6 days in water) 1 part of

3 parts standard quartz sand. 170 lbs.

(1 part of cement, 3 parts of sand, 27 days in air, 27 days in water) 1 part of

3 parts standard quartz sand. 240 lbs.

—Residue on No. 100 sieve not over 8 per cent by weight.

—Residue on No. 200 sieve not over 25 per cent by weight.

—Cement shall require at least 20 minutes to develop

of volume.—Pats of cement 3 inches in half inch thick at centre, tapering to thin ed in water after 24 hours in moist air, signs of cracking, distortion or disintegration pats in air shall also remain sound and

anhydride (SO_3). Not more than 1.75 per

MgO).—Not more than 4 per cent.

for testing shall be 1 sq. in. area of cross-
es shall be of brass-wire cloth having ap-
800 and 37,500 meshes per sq. in. respec-
diameter of wire being .0045 and .0023

requirements.—All cements shall meet such
quirements as to chemical and accelerated
chief engineer may determine. The re-
or "set" may be modified where the con-
ch as to make it advisable.

MAUKEE AND ST. PAUL RAIL-
WAY. BRIDGE AND BUILDING
CO. ST. PAUL, MINN.

REQUIREMENTS FOR PORTLAND CEMENT.

CHICAGO, Nov. 28, 1904.

It will be sampled in such a way as to
show the quality of cement in the car. Such
tests as are made in the Company's Laboratory,
in accordance with the Standard Specifications for
Cement adopted by the Committee of the
American Society of Testing Materials in June, 1904,
"General Conditions," Paragraphs 1 to 10,
"Tensile Strength," which will be as specified
in the Standard Specifications, are those recommended
by the Committee of the American Society of
Testing Materials, of the American Society of
Civil Engineers, January, 1904.

*Fineness, Time of Setting, Constancy
of Volume, Amount of Sulphuric Acid and Mag-
nesia* with the specifications of the "Ameri-
can Society of Testing Materials," above referred to.

TENSILE STRENGTH.

Requirements for tensile strength for
square in section shall be as follows:
All shall show no retrogression in strength
between tests specified and the sand tests shall show
at least 15% between 7- and 28-day tests.

(one part cement to three parts sand):

day in moist air and 6 days in water). . 175 lbs.
 " " " " " 27 " " "). . 250 "

GENERAL CONDITIONS.

shall be uniform in color, free from lumps and
 substances, and shall have been properly aged.
 shall be delivered in suitable packages with
 and the name of the manufacturer plainly
 thereon.

of cement shall contain 94 lbs. cement net.
 of Portland cement shall contain four bags.
 its made by the Railway Company shall be
 the Engineer and Superintendent of Bridges
 and Reserves reserves the right to reject, on the first
 test, any shipment of cement because of failure
 to meet the above requirements, or for any other cause
 which may deem sufficient.

rejected on account of failure to meet the
 requirements will be held subject to the order of
 the Engineer and at his expense for freight charges to and
 from the point where the cement was to have been used.

J. C. HAIN,

Engr. Mas. Const.

:
 LOWETH,

Engr. and Supt. B. and B.

...ISHED FOR PORTLAND
THE SECOND PARAGRAPH OF "SPECIFICA-
PORTLAND CEMENT" OF THE CHICAGO,
AND ST. PAUL RAILWAY COMPANY, UNDER
... 28, 1904.

SPECIFIC GRAVITY.

...vity of the cement, thoroughly dried at
...be less than 3.10.

FINENESS.

...weight a residue of not more than 8%
...and not more than 45% on the No. 200

TIME OF SETTING.

...p initial set in not less than thirty
...develop hard set in not less than one
...an ten hours.

CONSTANCY OF VOLUME.

...ment about three inches in diameter,
...k at the centre, and tapering to a thin
...t in moist air for a period of twenty-

...ept in air at normal temperature and
...ls for at least 28 days.

of steam, above boiling water, in a loosely
for five hours.

s, to satisfactorily pass the requirements,
firm and hard, and show no signs of distort-
g, cracking, or disintegrating.

SULPHURIC ACID AND MAGNESIA.

nt shall not contain more than 1.75% of
sulphuric acid (SO), nor more than 4%
(MgO).

J. C. HAIN,
Engr. Mas. Const.

LOWETH,
gr. and Supt. B. and B.

F.

ATIONS FOR MUNICIPAL WORK AT WASHINGTON, D. C.

Dow, *Inspector of Asphalts and Cements.*

PORTLAND CEMENT.

—Not less than 95 per cent to pass a 50-
and not less than 90 per cent through a 100-

etting.—Initial set, in not less than 45 minutes,

until hard set, rest of day in water) :
 ent. 225 lbs.
 (in air 1 day, in water 6 days) :
 ent. 450 lbs.
 (in air 1 day, in water 27 days) :
 ent. 550 lbs.
 (in air 1 day, in water 27 days) :
 ent. 225 "

the neat into wedge-shaped pats about three
 a side, half an inch thick at back tapering
 edge, the cement must show no signs of
 warping after being in air or water at normal
 for 28 days.
 t which shows signs of swelling after being
 rejected.
 must be properly seasoned; too fresh cement
 nt will be rejected.
 shall contain over 2 per cent of sulphuric

Portland.—Cement furnished under this
 must comply with the preceding specifica-

Portland.—Cement furnished under this
 must comply with the preceding specifica-
 n addition must meet the following require.
 s B cement is intended for special use in the

may be satisfactorily drawn within 24 hours
g a concrete made of cement one part, sand
broken stone three parts, and pebbles three
the temperature is at or above 40° Fahr., may
as Class B cement.

e.—Each bidder must deliver at D. C.
house prior to time of opening proposals, a
rel of the cement which he proposes to furnish.

ge.—Portland cement delivered in wood will
in new, strong, serviceable barrels, lined
Weight to be 400 pounds gross, and the
the cement to be not less than 375 pounds.
ement delivered in sacks will be packed in
serviceable canvas sacks, containing one fourth
ntity specified to be delivered in barrel. The
e returned to the contractor or paid for at the
cents each. All sacks will be subject to in-
d approval by the Commissioners.

of delivery.—Cement will be delivered at
ehouse, located on Canal street, between Dela-
e and First street S. W., or F. O. B. cars on
altimore and Ohio, or Philadelphia, Baltimore
ngton Railroads, at such points as may be
y the Commissioners, D. C.

—Delivery must be commenced within thirty
notice of award of contract and prosecuted at
e, not exceeding one fifth of the total amount
t in any one month, as may be ordered in.

ment in arrears (or such less quantity
red) in open market, in which event
t over and above contract rates will be
he contractor in default and deducted
that may be due or may become due
it is also reserved to the Commissioners,
e remedies prescribed above, to charge
ractor and deduct from any moneys
ay thereafter become due, the sum of
them (Sundays and legal holidays not
ted as liquidated and fixed damages
ractor's failure to properly perform the
act.

Cement will be sampled after delivery.
seven-day test herein provided will be
acceptance, but the right to reject shall
any time before final payment or the
t in question. All tests will be made
prescribed by the committee of the
of Civil Engineers, with such modi-
employed in the laboratory of the En-
nt, and which are open to the inspec-
ractors. All cements will, from time
ected to chemical analysis, and must
m any foreign substance or deleterious
the elements are combined in proper
cure the best results and insure per-
ments must be of uniform quality and
e Commissioners. The works of the

language to the inspector or other representative district or otherwise impede or embarrass him in the discharge of his duties shall be immediately removed from the contract, and not again employed without the approval of the Commissioners. Should the conduct or performance of the contractor require additional inspectors, the contractor shall be appointed and the cost thereof, not exceeding \$5 per diem (of ten hours) for each inspector, to be charged against the contractor.

NATURAL CEMENT.

Test.—Not less than 95 per cent, to pass a 50-mesh sieve, and not less than 82 per cent through a 100-mesh sieve.

of setting.—Initial set, in not less than 10 nor more than 30 minutes, when mixed with the smallest amount of water between the temperatures of 70° and 80° F.

Strength:

(in air until hard set, rest of day in water):

1 part cement. 80 lbs.

1 part (in air 1 day, in water 6 days):

1 part cement. 150 lbs.

10 parts sand. 80 "

1 part (in air 1 day, in water 27 days):

1 part cement. 200 lbs.

10 parts sand. 150 "

28 days.

which shows signs of swelling after being rejected.

must be properly seasoned; too fresh cement will be rejected.

shall contain over 2 per cent of sulphuric

Each bidder must deliver at D. C. Cement time of opening proposals, a sample barrel cement which he proposes to furnish.

Natural hydraulic cement will be packed in burlap canvas sacks of uniform size. The cement will be returned to the contractor or paid for at the rate of 10 cents for small sacks and 10 cents for large sacks. All sacks will be subject to inspection and approval of the Commissioners.

Natural cement will be paid for at the rate of 10 cents per barrel. Each sack will contain 94 pounds. The contractor will be required to furnish cement in sacks of uniform size, and bidder must specify whether it is proposed to furnish cement in barrels or in 150-pound sacks.

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